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ABSTRACT

A total of five articles concerning adult basic education are presented. These are: "Recruitment Strategies for Adult Basic Education," by Ron Howard; "Native to the Hills," by Myrtle Reul; "The Learning Laboratory--A Valid System for Adult Basic Education," by Joe Carter; "Reading Instruction for Illiterate Adults," by John George; and "Teaching English as a Second Language--A Challenging Responsibility," by Robert Avina and others. Howard's article focuses on the need for developing a systematic and relevant recruitment campaign. The second article examines the self-identity of the Appalachian Highlander. The objectives and uses of the learning laboratory is the subject of Carter's presentation. John George discusses the underlying causes of illiteracy and the best ways to approach the problem. Finally, Robert Avina concentrates on the prerequisites for a successful program for teaching English as a second language. (CK)

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State of Ohio
Department of Education
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Strategies and Responsibilities in Adult Basic Education Programs

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A twelve percent enrollment increase last year meant that a record 23,418 Ohioans participated in adult learning opportunities during 1971-72. Continuous expansion and refinement has characterized Adult Basic Education since its inception in 1966 with a first-year enrollment of 5,000 adults in twenty-four school districts.

Adult Basic Education is designed for adults who have not attained at least an eighth grade education and wish to gain additional skills in a vocation or improve their ability to exercise responsible citizenship. Adults who completed the basic education studies gained tangible results from their efforts -- for example, 988 found jobs; 530 found better-paying employment or earned promotions; 762 were able to register to vote for the first time; 645 received their drivers license; 196 received United States citizenship; 55 graduated from high school; and 1,173 passed the general education development test, which is the equivalent of a high school diploma.

Significantly, 2,610 adults who completed Adult Basic Education studies are now enrolled in further education or job training classes.

Ohio taxpayers also benefit from these adult learning opportunities. Through Adult Basic Education, 668 adults were able to discontinue their dependence on public welfare, a potential savings to the state of more than $1,500,000 annually.

Styled in a manner to meet the unique needs of adults, the adult's education does not interfere with a job or homemaking responsibilities. In urban centers, "learning laboratories" are open twelve hours a day so that adult learners may find it more convenient to take part. By the use of programmed instruction, which allows adults to proceed at their own pace rather than the traditional classroom approach, teachers are able to give individual attention to specific problems an adult may have.

Each learner follows a curriculum suited to his individual capabilities and interests as determined through counseling sessions.

During the summer and fall of 1972, the Division of Federal Assistance in the Ohio Department of Education conducted four conferences for directors, teachers, and other Adult Basic Education staff members. Nationally recognized consultants shared their views on recruitment strategies, Appalachia heritage, the learning laboratory approach, reading instruction for illiterate adults, and teaching English as a second language. Special appreciation is extended to these persons, both for their oral presentations and for these written abridgements.

Martin W. Essex
Superintendent of Public Instruction

Strategies and Responsibilities in Adult Basic Education Programs

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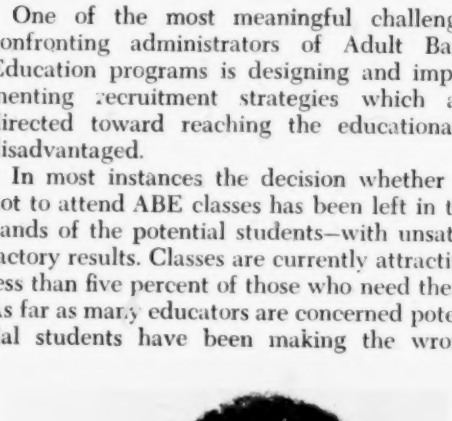
Recruitment Strategies for Adult Basic Education

One of the most meaningful challenges confronting administrators of Adult Basic Education programs is designing and implementing recruitment strategies which are directed toward reaching the educationally disadvantaged.

In most instances the decision whether or not to attend ABE classes has been left in the hands of the potential students—with unsatisfactory results. Classes are currently attracting less than five percent of those who need them. As far as many educators are concerned potential students have been making the wrong decisions. The need for developing a systematic and relevant recruitment campaign rests on a simple axiom: *If the educationally disadvantaged will not come to classes when summoned, educators have to go and get them.*



This article was adapted from a presentation made by Ron Howard (National Director, Adult Armchair Education Program) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Burr Oak Lodge on June 19-21, 1972.

Basic Assumptions

Today's disadvantaged have been separated from their country's institutions. Generation by generation, they have learned to do without them. New ways must be found to reach such people.

The national ABE attendance level will not rise appreciably if future campaigns depend solely on magnification of previous, ineffective efforts. *Recruitment methods must change!* Planners must revise some of their most basic assumptions. Fundamentally, the success of future efforts depends on a change in the concept of program presentation. Without change, Adult Basic Education will become one of any number of programs wanting attention from the disadvantaged and not getting it. In order to assure more productive enrollment efforts, program administrators must design effective recruitment strategies. Five basic assumptions should be implicit in ABE recruitment strategies:

1. *If program efforts to secure students are unsuccessful, it is the fault of the program and not the students.* Traditionally, ABE programs have relied on the assumption that their mere existence, plus a few indirect recruitment efforts, would suffice to arouse any number of students. Traditionally, these efforts have failed. Furthermore, this lack of response has traditionally been attributed to failings on the part of those eligible to become students. Successful recruitment strategies are derived from an understanding that if a program fails to attract students, it is the program's fault and not the students.'

2. *Despite the initial ap frequently encountere lations are keenly a education.* Every day "pay the dues" result educational preparati ability to secure dece stantially reduced ea inability to fulfill educ of their children. AB cruiters, and teachers to the deep rooted r which exists within ta

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2. *Despite the initial apathy and skepticism frequently encountered, ABE target populations are keenly aware of the value of education.* Every day they are forced to "pay the dues" resulting from inadequate educational preparation—for example, inability to secure decent employment, substantially reduced earning capability, and inability to fulfill educational support needs of their children. ABE administrators, recruiters, and teachers must learn to appeal to the deep rooted respect for education which exists within target communities.
3. *The need for ABE programming must be sold to target populations.* A program's existence does not in itself assure an incoming flow of students, nor does a lack of students indicate a lack of interest on their part. Since the prospective students may have been convinced by previous practice that education is not meant for them, they must be persuaded otherwise.
4. *ABE programs must be responsive to the needs of target populations in areas other than education.* ABE programs must be multifaceted, offering the widest possible range of services in order to attract participants. Each program must offer answers to problems of high personal priority to the participants or have those problems become reasons for non-participation. The disadvantaged in need of Adult Basic Education have more urgent and immediate problems than their lack of education, even though these problems may well be the result of little or no education. The educational program which ignores non-educational problems will find its appeal fatally limited.
5. *Cultural differences must be recognized.* Cultural values, attitudes, needs, and life styles of the educationally disadvantaged

frequently conflict with traditional middle class orientations. And all too frequently, such orientations form the underpinnings of current educational programs. How we, as ABE administrators, manage to incorporate values and attitudes in program make-up will have a major impact on the potential for recruitment success and effectiveness.

Specific Recommendations

Acceptance of the foregoing assumptions provides an important first step to organizing recruitment strategies which are relevant to the needs of our target populations. A second step is to put into practice ten specific recommendations which should measurably enhance the prospects of designing successful recruitment approaches for ABE programs:

1. *Clearly identify the target population to be reached.* The need for Adult Basic Education is widespread. The design of effective recruitment programs should begin with a clear identification of the specific target audiences. If intended target groups are clearly defined, the geographic areas from which sizable numbers of the target population may be recruited can be readily identified.
2. *Understand and assess existing community attitudes.* Effective recruitment strategies require learning about the communities to be served. Be prepared to overcome prevailing negative attitudes of apathy, skepticism, ignorance, and indifference. Talk with people from the communities to be served by ABE programming. Successful recruitment requires the support and involvement of carefully selected community organizations and leaders. And this support doesn't just happen: It must be solicited.
3. *Establish specific recruitment goals and objectives which can be measured.* Establishment of specific quantitative goals for ABE programs is a reliable method by which to realize predetermined objectives. Many ABE administrators do not define the qualitative goals needed to focus on the immediate needs of the target population. Undefined goals allow for the establishment of vague screening devices or the leisurely never-ending search for participants in need of nothing more than education. If the life of the program hinges on successful recruitment of a specified number of students, it must fulfill student needs. That is the only way to meet goals.
4. *Develop a continuous recruitment strategy.* Recruitment strategies for accomplishing predetermined objectives should be designed to operate on an ongoing basis. A continuous recruitment program should effectively integrate both direct and indirect recruitment methods. When used successfully, indirect recruitment methods form a valuable
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4. *Develop a continuous recruitment strategy.* Recruitment strategies for accomplishing predetermined objectives should be designed to operate on an ongoing basis. A continuous recruitment program should effectively integrate both direct and indirect recruitment methods. When used successfully, indirect recruitment methods form a valuable supplement to direct recruitment techniques. The use of posters, handbills, and mass media spot announcements should be employed on a continuous basis to help build a general receptiveness among the target population. Direct recruitment strategies must also be conducted on a continuous basis. Direct confrontation with the target population by a indigenous recruiter is the selling method which tends to yield the best results. Prospective students are then forced one by one to either accept or reject a program that is tailored to their needs—a program that is being recommended by a person with whom they can communicate. It is easy to reject indirect appeals posed by leaflets, brochures, or radio and television announcements. By contrast, the individual asked to accept ABE through direct confrontation with a recruiter is hard pressed to reject the program.

5. *Identify and select recruitment staff resources.* The selection of ABE recruiters is governed by a few general principles:
   - Recruiters should conform to the racial and cultural norms of the target population. In getting the program's message to the target population, open and effective communication is imperative. Like most people, the disadvantaged are more than skeptical of "strangers" to their community who suddenly appear to offer them help. They are much more likely to listen or speak to a person who, by manner of speech and habit, clearly demonstrates that he is sharing the residents' life style and culture.
   - Recruiters must be highly motivated toward community service. Without the proper motivation, the recruiter will soon find that rejection and apathy render him ineffective.

   - Recruiters should display high aptitudes for development of effective communication and relationships with the target population. Generally, this involves the ability to raise one's own emotional reaction level to a point where it remains stable through any contact with the target population. Whether the person being recruited is apathetic or openly hostile, the recruiter should react not from a personal level, but in a way that will neutralize the prospective student's reaction and make him receptive to the program.

6. *Organize a recruiter training program.* A paraprofessional recruiter frequently comes to his task with no previous experience. Structured, carefully planned training is essential to the success of the recruiter and of the program. Any recruiter training program should include three basics:
   - A thorough orientation to the program, its goals, and its thrust to help those the recruiter will be asking to participate. The recruiter must be convinced that the program's
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   - A thorough orientation to the program, its goals, and its thrust to help those the recruiter will be asking to participate. The recruiter must be convinced that the program's goals are worthwhile and meaningful to the target population.
   - An awareness by the recruiter of his own opportunities for advancement within the program's framework.
   - Specific insights into various recruitment techniques: how to open a conversation, how to counter objections, how to end an interview, and so on.

7. *Develop interagency linkages.* Cooperation among agencies serving low income residents is vital to the survival of the ABE program attempting to draw on the widest possible range of social and medical referrals. No program should duplicate services available from other agencies. It should use its resources to meet other worthwhile goals. Ideally, cooperative interagency linkages between program and agencies become conduits through which the educational agency refers clients to the service agencies and vice versa. Interagency linkages should be well formed and organized by the time real ABE recruitment efforts begin.

8. *Identify effective classroom sites.* ABE classes should, whenever possible, be located in sites which are comfortable and convenient for the intended target populations. The idea is to encourage attendance and to make participation satisfying and pleasant. The identification of convenient classroom sites provides an effective method by which the program can be taken more directly into the community.
9. *Be responsive to informational feedback.* Recruiters should keep track of resident response—whether it was favorable, what objections were impossible to overcome, whether residents had heard of the program before and from which sources. By faithfully registering neighborhood feedback, recruiters provide a means for restructuring the program in terms of needs of the target population.

10. *Recognize the relationship between quality programming and successful recruitment.* A sound recruitment strategy is not enough. The program must live up to promises made by recruiters. Three areas of programming must be present and meaningful to students:
    - *Counseling.* There appears to be an inherent necessity for a counseling component within any ABE program. A counseling unit can make effective use of, and help to develop further, the cooperative interagency linkages vitally needed if ABE is to follow through in its promise to help individual students with specific problems. Students coming into the program have multiple needs to which ABE must respond, or create a climate in which discontinuance of the program will become commonplace.
    - *Well Trained Teachers.* The learning environment encountered by the ABE participant is most directly influenced by the ABE teacher. Attitudinal awareness of instructors and their respect for trainees are essential to continued involvement. Sound teacher training programs and orientation workshops are essential ingredients of a successful ABE program.
    - *Relevant Curriculum.* Curriculum materials must be tailored to the interests and needs of the target population. In creating a learning experience around the real life situation of the student, the knowledge gathered during ABE experiences becomes immediately convertible into individual actions. If a student can learn something tonight that he can use tomorrow, he is encouraged to return and learn more. A curriculum of such immediacy encourages student participation in planned lessons and activities.

Concluding Observations

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Concluding Observations

In summary, ABE program administrators should recognize the need to include in the program design specific resources in the form of a paid recruitment staff to handle this critical program function. The special skills and talents of the trained recruiter can be utilized to involve the under-educated resident who must be made to feel that his participation will be comfortable, friendly, and relevant to his needs. No method other than direct confrontation by a recruiter who is perceived as "like us" will successfully involve the target group.

As a concluding observation, persons selected for recruitment positions should be drawn from the target population to be served by the program. The essential requirement in recruitment is an ability to communicate. Recruiters should, therefore, understand the language, attitudes, and life style of the intended target group. These qualities are best ensured if the recruiter is himself a part of the target community.

Native to the Hills

In order to understand the Appalachian Highlander who leaves the area of his birth, a person has to understand those who remain in the high reaches of the mountains. In addition, one must appreciate geographical influences on the emotional development of individuals as well as comprehend how external control can mold and change lives. If educators, social workers, public health nurses, and other professionals are to communicate effectively with those who are native to the hills, they must have a deep respect for Appalachia the land and Appalachia the people. They must also understand the saga of coal mining in relation to the history of this nation.

This article was adapted from a presentation made by Myrtle R. Reul (Professor of Social Work, University of Georgia) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Chillicothe on September 29-30, 1972.

Anyone hoping to work effectively with people whose childhood days knew the majestic beauty of a hill outlined against the stars, the splash of water dashing over rocks, the green banks of fern and moss hidden in a cove, must understand that people from Appalachia have been on the receiving end of much prejudice and contempt. Expressions like *ignorant hillbillies, hill trash,* and *welfare chislers* have filled many of them with a deep sense of shame to acknowledge even their place of birth. They may say, "I'm from Kentucky, not up in the mountains, but from the Blue Grass region," or "We came from the Shenandoah Valley," leaving their listener to conclude that the Shenandoah is in Virginia, never thinking of the section of the Shenandoah Valley which is in West Virginia. Such denial and lack of pride in one's birthplace result from emotional hurts through which the Highlander has learned that in the estimation of those he now meets, works with, and sometimes needs to impress, there is something not quite as good about being from West Virginia as there is in being a member of a so-called "old family" of Virginia.

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Many studies of the people of Appalachia have focused on their weaknesses. These studies have labeled mountain people as peasants, with the connotation of *slobs,* and not as Oliver Goldsmith saw peasants, the strength of the nation. Other studies have described segments of the Appalachian population as if certain traits and characteristics applied to every person living in Appalachia—regardless of race, nationality, or family background. The result has been myths and half truths about 18 million people who have the common experience of living in Appalachia—the only thing they all have in common.

Frame of Reference

The purpose of this paper is to help you, the reader, examine the Appalachian Highlander as an emotional or psychological being whose self-identity has been shaped by the geographic area in which he lives or once lived. Within this context is the assumption that all identity of self, or ego boundaries that are culturally determined, has its beginning in the early formative years of the child's development and is determined by what he is taught about a Supreme Being, other people, living and innate things, places, space, and time. Some of these areas as they are experienced

by, or apply to, the Appalachian Highlander will be examined.

First, however, I will define Appalachia, and then discuss the two states in the region which have been the greatest source of in-migration for Ohio, namely Kentucky and West Virginia.

Appalachia the Varied

One thing that must be recognized is that the region of Appalachia is varied, and while there are commonalities based on common community or environmental experiences, the people living in Appalachia represent various cultures and all social classes. Each state is different. And while to an "outsider" all people from Appalachia sound the same, a mountaineer can quickly distinguish the accent of someone from North Carolina or West Virginia or Tennessee.

It must also be recognized that while individuals and families from Appalachia may differ from families and individuals in the new communities in which they live, the culture of Appalachia is found in other parts of the country. Moreover, this culture has aspects found in other cultures—for example, the family ties of Jews, Amish, or American Indians.

Appalachia the Country

Appalachia is a mountainous sweep of land cutting diagonally across parts of thirteen states from southern New York to northern Mississippi, with West Virginia being the only state completely within the area. Appalachia has never been a homogeneous region and has never had people with a homogeneous culture. The early settlers to the hills and mountains came from different ethnic backgrounds. They migrated to the area for different reasons. Mainly, however, Appalachia is not a homogeneous region because geographically it is divided into four sub-regions, each with a slightly different relationship to the rest of the section and to the nation as a whole.

Northern Appalachia—which includes southern New York, parts of Pennsylvania, western Maryland, northern West Virginia, and southern Ohio—has a long history of urbanization and industrialization in cities such as Pittsburgh and Wheeling. At the present this area is grappling with problems of converting from dependency on coal, steel, and railroad employment to other types of manufacturing and service employment.

Southern Appalachia—which includes parts of Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia—has recognized the need to develop high-school and post-high-school vocational training to prepare young people for the jobs that are opening as industry moves into the area.

The third subregion—the Appalachian Highlands—extends from northern Georgia, through the Smoky Mountains of Tennessee and North Carolina, into the Blue Ridge of Virginia and the Alleghenies of West Virginia and Pennsylvania all the way to the Catskills in New York. This highly scenic but sparsely populated strip has its greatest potential as a tourist and recreational area for the rest of Appalachia and for the metropolitan populations living on either side.[1]

[1] Niles M. Hansen, *Rural Poverty and the Urban Crisis*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1970, pp. 83-84.

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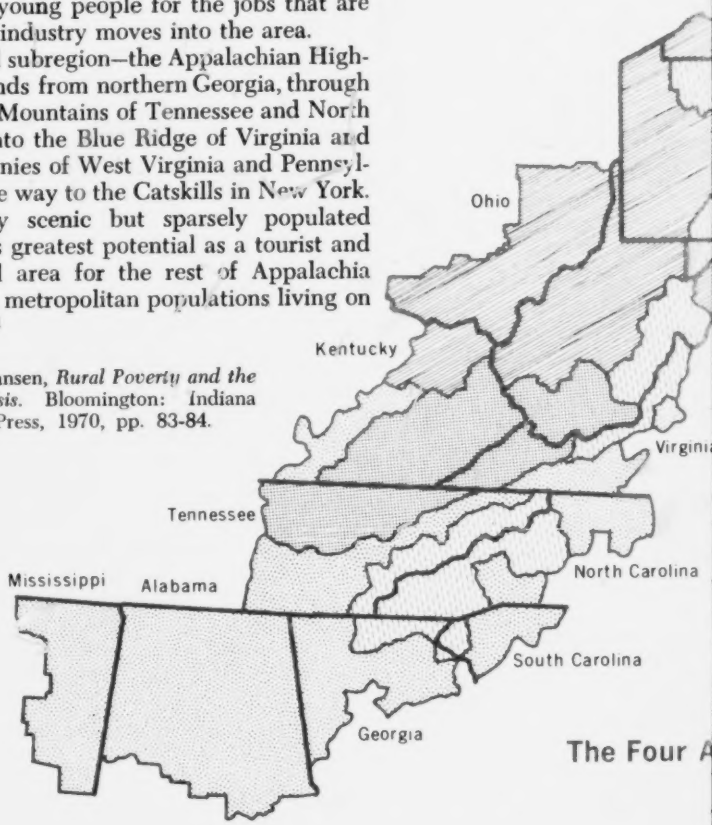

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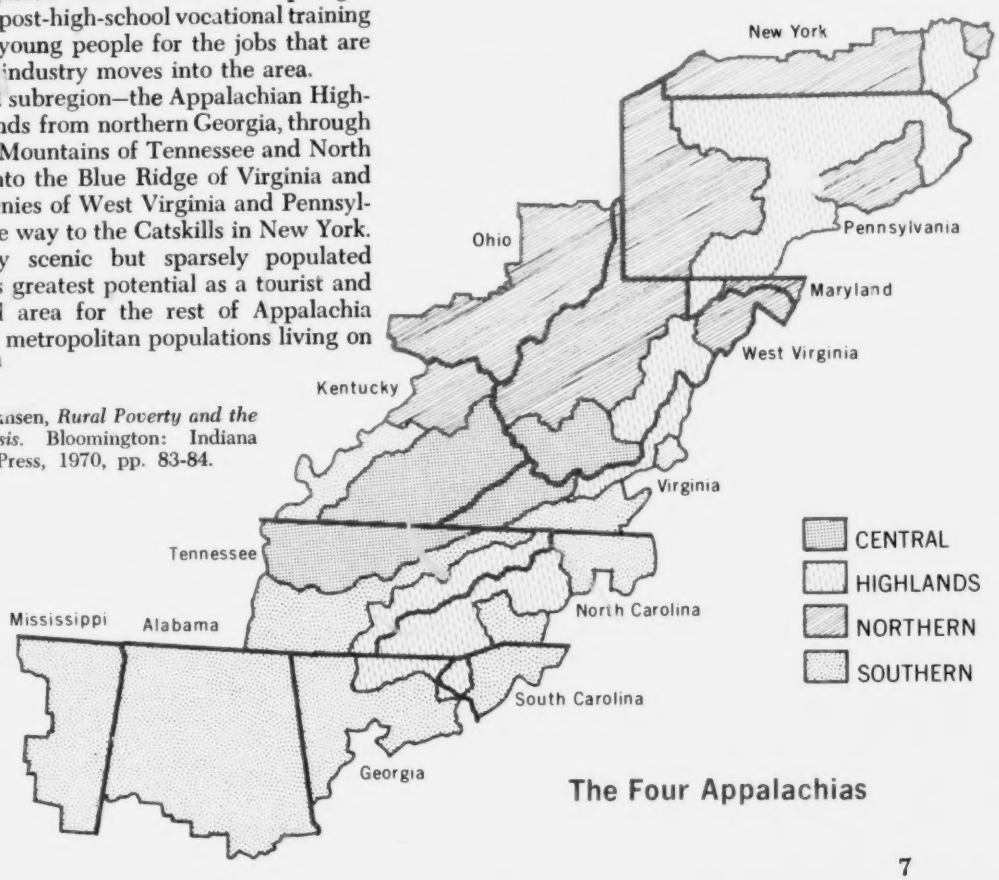
Central Appalachia consists of sixty counties in eastern Kentucky, southern West Virginia, northern Tennessee, and southwestern Virginia. Once an area with prosperous coal mines, this subregion has experienced the greatest loss of population. Since the likelihood of new industry being brought into the narrow valleys is remote, even more people will need to move. Many of them will go to communities where they have relatives. And, if the migrants are from Kentucky or West Virginia, Ohio is the state where many of their family members have gone before.



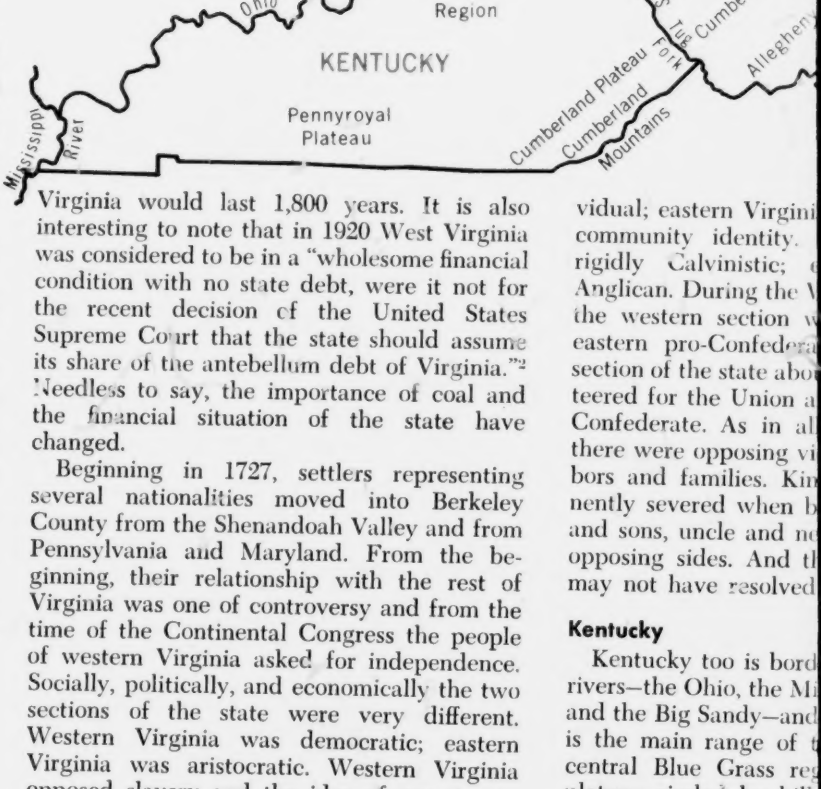
The Four Appalachias

West Virginia

Geographically West Virginia is bordered on three sides by rivers—on the northeast by the Potomac, on the southwest by the Big Sandy and the Tug Fork, and on the northwest by the Ohio. The state is divided into four regions—the Ohio Valley, the Cumberland Plateau, the Allegheny Highlands and the Potomac Valley. The Ohio Valley region, with altitudes of 500 to 1,000 feet, covers one-third of the state. This is where the urban areas are located and where over half the state's population lives. In the Cumberland plateau, which runs parallel to the Ohio Valley, the altitude is 1,000 to 2,000 feet. About one-fourth of West Virginia's population lives in this area. The Allegheny Highlands, with mountains beyond mountains, upward to the loftiest Allegheny crest, forms a barrier between the two Virginias. The altitude in this region ranges from 2,000 to 5,000 feet. About 17 percent of the people in the state live in this area where coal and lumber are the major economic assets. Northeast of the Allegheny Mountains is the Potomac region, a broad two-county bottomland of the lower Shenandoah Valley. Approximately 12 percent of the state's population lives in this highly developed agricultural area.

Both West Virginia and Kentucky were well endowed with timber. Three-fourths of West Virginia and one-third of Kentucky were once covered with commercial timber—for the most part hardwoods like oak, chestnut, hickory, black walnut, and maple with some white pine and spruce.

Of the 55 counties in West Virginia, 49 were underlaid with coal. Numerous thick veins, aided by favorable topographical conditions, made it possible to mine coal in West Virginia at the same rate of labor with greater economy than in any other state. In 1917 (when 1,000 coal mines were in operation) the U.S. Department of Mines reported that with the then current rate of production, the coal of West



Virginia would last 1,800 years. It is also interesting to note that in 1920 West Virginia was considered to be in a "wholesome financial condition with no state debt, were it not for the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court that the state should assume its share of the antebellum debt of Virginia."[2] Needless to say, the importance of coal and the financial situation of the state have changed.

Beginning in 1727, settlers representing several nationalities moved into Berkeley County from the Shenandoah Valley and from Pennsylvania and Maryland. From the beginning, their relationship with the rest of Virginia was one of controversy and from the time of the Continental Congress the people of western Virginia asked for independence. Socially, politically, and economically the two sections of the state were very different. Western Virginia was democratic; eastern Virginia was aristocratic. Western Virginia opposed slavery and the idea of one person being "beholden to another"; the eastern section was built on large slave holdings. Western Virginia was strongly individualistic, upholding the self-determination of the individual; eastern Virgini
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[2] *The Encyclopedia Americana.* New York: The Encyclopedia Americana Corporation, 1920, p. 212.

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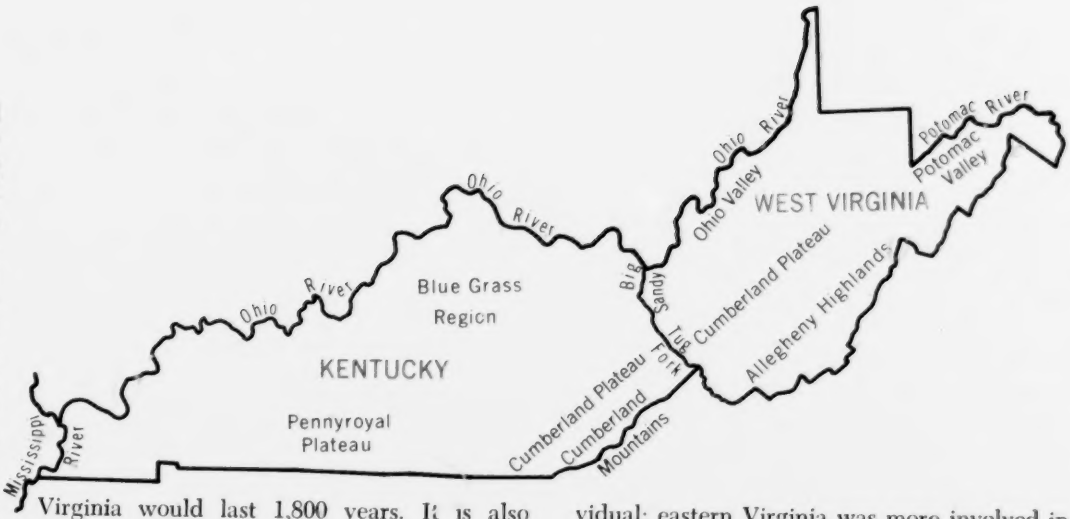

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[2] *The Encyclopedia Americana.* New York: The Encyclopedia Americana Corporation, 1920, p. 212.

Kentucky

Kentucky too is bordered on three sides by rivers—the Ohio, the Mississippi, the Tug Fork and the Big Sandy—and its southern boundary is the main range of the Cumberlands. The central Blue Grass region is an undulating plateau circled by hill ridges. The diversive elements of blue grass and mountain terrain created sharp differences in the nature of early settlements and in sentiments about slavery.

Early settlers were mainly from Maryland, Pennsylvania, and North Carolina. Mostly they were Anglo-Saxon. Later settlers included

immigrants from Germany and Ireland. At the time of the Civil War, families of Kentucky were often divided, witnessed by the fact that the state furnished presidents for both sides—Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis. The disorders of the Civil War period died hard, especially in remote mountain areas. When the coal mines were opened, thousands of miners came from Italy, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, Albania, and Greece.

Saga of Coal Mining

Mineral wealth included limestone and glass sand in West Virginia, making glass manufacture an important industry. But it was coal in both Kentucky and West Virginia which became the major influence on those who migrated in, those who migrated out, and those who remained.

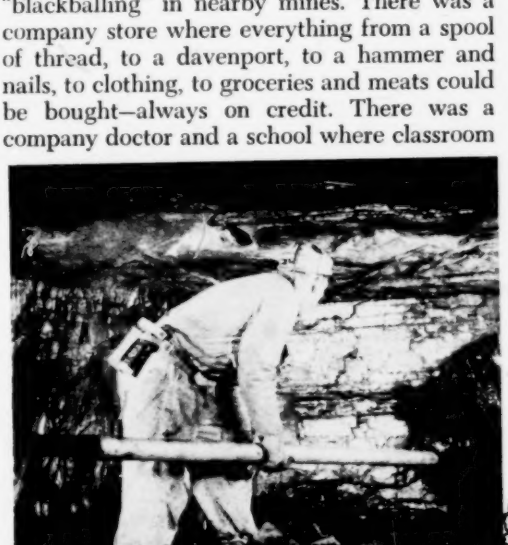
The saga of coal mining is a dark picture of exploitation of workers, destruction of natural resources, depletion with only slight investment, external control and absentee ownership, and indifferent decisions.[3] Heavy in-migration started in the late nineteenth century when lumber corporations harvested the timber of the mountains, but the real impact of in-migration came with the opening of the coal mines.

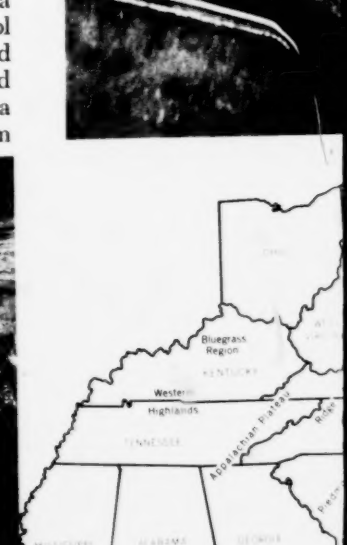
Mining corporations, controlled by boards outside the area, were interested only in obtaining and marketing coal as cheaply as possible. To make profit with little investment became the major goal. Experienced miners were needed, so large numbers were brought from Wales, Italy, and other places in Europe. These were men whose families had provided generations of miners, men who often could not speak a word of English. They were brought into the mountains of West Virginia and Kentucky by public relations men who had sold them on a dream of freedom and deserted them to go off to recruit others.

For those whose families had lived in the region for years this "invasion of foreigners" meant only one thing—the taking of jobs available for Americans had it not been for the "Wops," "Hunkies," and Irish Catholics. The newcomers, who found the atmosphere hostile, handled their alienation by staying entrenched in their own cultures and becoming more tied to their own relatives. As for the families there first, they never accepted the foreigners.

In order to have the miners available when needed, the companies built camps—or unincorporated towns—with rows and rows of identical houses which were rented to the miners. There was no need for a sense of community or for community responsibility. The coal mine was the community.

The company provided and controlled everything under the threat of dismissal and "blackballing" in nearby mines. There was a company store where everything from a spool of thread, to a davenport, to a hammer and nails, to clothing, to groceries and meats could be bought—always on credit. There was a company doctor and a school where classroom





[3] See Harry M. Caudill's *Night Comes to the Cumberlands* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1963) for a description of life in the Cumberland Plateau and mining experiences.

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discipline was handled by a mine official telling a father if he wanted to keep his job he had better make his son behave in school. All things—work, physical needs, and planned social activities—were determined by mine officials. Except for interpersonal emotional involvement, individuals provided nothing for themselves.

Irregular Work Patterns

The work pattern was seasonal. Even in peak years the mines shut down from late spring until fall with other layoffs for strikes, broken machinery, and cave-ins. Many mines were closed as much as they were open. In 1932 the bituminous mines in West Virginia averaged 145 days of operation and 165 days of idleness.[4]

During times when the mines were closed, the company maintained a paternalistic attitude, providing credit at the company store. While there was security in knowing there would be a roof and food as long as the miner worked, the paternalistic attitude, the seasonal work pattern, and the absentee ownership had certain negative psychological effects on the people. Under such conditions there is a feeling of helplessness, of being controlled by things outside, of having no self-determination. In time there may be a loss of incentive, an inability to plan for the future, and impulsive living from day to day.

With the closing of the mines, the only choices for the people were to leave the area or to stay and live on welfare.

[4] May Van Kleeck, *Mines and Management*. Charleston: West Virginia Mine Association, 1934, p. 185.

Out-Migration

Any migration, regardless of cause or destination, entails personal values which include the aspiration to get ahead. There must also be a concept of self that is willing to take responsibility for change. Migration entails a future orientation as opposed to a present or past orientation. It involves a belief in the future and a recognition that one's ego territorial boundaries—as evidenced in relationship to people, places, things, and time—can be expanded beyond the confines of present circumstances.

People who migrate have a strong belief that they can improve their situation or can make a more useful contribution if they go somewhere else. Migration, therefore, is an attempt to control one's destiny—to achieve something one does not have at a point in time or in a certain place.

Push and Pull Currents

The push and pull of opportunity differentials at any given period of time result in major currents of migration which flow in a prevailing direction. A migratory current may be defined as a flow of large numbers of people who have a common origin and a common destination. The pull into Ohio comes mainly out of eastern Kentucky and out of West Virginia. From eastern Kentucky, people tend to go to Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton—where populations are made up of sizeable numbers of persons b
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College-Trained Migrants

The young and the better educated are the most mobile. The role of colleges in serving as a kind of conduit can be seen at Morehead State University in Kentucky, where, according to Packard, "Sixty percent (of the students) say they plan to seek jobs outside the state, mainly in teaching. There are two hundred teachers in Dade County, Florida, who came out of the hills of Kentucky via Morehead State University."[6] Packard also points out that one reason Marshall University at Huntington, West Virginia, has trouble getting financial support from state legislators is because so many of its graduates leave the state for "greener pastures." One such pasture, the state of Ohio, begins several thousand yards from the campus across the Ohio River.[7]

Appalachia the People

Uncertainty of life has created an acceptance of what happens with an air of finality. "I do what I can, and beyond that I accept it because there is nothing more I can do." This sort of acceptance of reality gives the impression of lack of concern for both the present and the future.

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[5] James S. Brown, "Population and Migration Changes in Appalachia" (*Change in Rural Appalachia*, John D. Photiadis and Harry K. Schwarzweller, editors. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1970), pp. 36-37.

[6] Vance Packard, *A Nation of Strangers*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1972, pp. 84-85.

[7] *Ibid.*

Death has always been a reality in the mountains, and frequently it has been violent death.[8] Infant mortality and accidents both inside and outside the mines have been major causes. Even in the face of high accident rates, getting miners to use safety equipment is a problem. It is almost as if they possess a fearlessness, a sort of grandiose impression of their omnipotence and perhaps even an unconscious suicidal tendency which makes them volunteer for dangerous assignments—for example, cutting through a condemned part of a mine, taking out so much coal that supports are too thin to hold up the roof, or keeping the safety off their guns while hunting. Today in Ohio factories, the same workers often do not wear their safety shoes, or they leave their safety glasses in their pockets and resent being told to put them on. If company policy is to send a worker who has broken a safety rule home for a few days, a former Highlander may feel unduly harassed and justified in quitting.

[8] For a discussion on death in the Appalachian family, see Jack E. Weller's *Yesterday's People* (Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1966).

Family Communication

Many myths have been circulated about the Appalachian family. One is that they do not discuss their feelings with each other. They may not talk about feelings to "outsiders," but family members do express feelings and opinions to each other. There are also subleties of communication, including body language, which occur between family members that may not be noted by an observer or, if noted, may not be viewed as important.

A network of communication is built into the mountain culture by the fact of biological relationships. For example, certain people automatically respond in certain ways, but talking about it may not be part of their behavior. It may be unusual for a particular husband and wife to have long discussions as part of their decision-making process. Yet, they can arrive at a mutually binding decision and know how they stand with each other, although they may not necessarily understand why they reached that particular conclusion. Fox was one of the earliest writers to recognize the unspoken communication in the mountain home. He describes it thus: "Already the house was full of children and dependents, but no word passed between old Joel and the old mother (husband and wife) for no word was necessary. Two waifs who had so suffered and who could so fight could have a home under [their] roof if they pleased, forever."[9]

There is an old mountain expression that says, "It is not what you say, it is what you do that counts." This expression has been reinforced through the years as a theme of child rearing poems such as those appearing in early McGuffey readers. One poem, "I Love You Mother," tells of children who called out "I love you, Mother" as they ran outside to play, except for one who remained to help the mother with her work. The n act itself "spoke louder than ite ballads, the family memb verbally affectionate is usu comes to the rescue or in th most. He stays home and aging parent, pays off th otherwise the knight in shi

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[9] John Fox, Jr., *The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1903, p. 30.

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There is an old mountain expression that says, "It is not what you say, it is what you do that counts." This expression has been reinforced through the years as a theme of child rearing poems such as those appearing in early McGuffey readers. One poem, "I Love You Mother," tells of children who called out "I love you, Mother" as they ran outside to play, except for one who remained to help the mother with her work. The moral was that the act itself "spoke louder than words." In favorite ballads, the family member who is the least verbally affectionate is usually the one who comes to the rescue or in the end provides the most. He stays home and takes care of the aging parent, pays off the mortgage, or is otherwise the knight in shining armor.

Family Size

Large families have been common in Appalachia, with the birth rate of some of the more mountainous counties being the highest in the country. Religious training interpreted literally such Biblical injunctions as God's commandment to Noah and his sons, "Be fruitful and multiply." Women who could not bear children were pitied, and men who did not become fathers were often challenged to prove their manliness by drinking, fighting, hunting, or performing feats of physical strength. Birth control or family planning was felt to be "tampering with the will of God," and also it was threatening to a self-concept tied to the ability to reproduce.

[9] John Fox, Jr., *The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1903, p. 30.

Infant-Centered Home

The Appalachian home is infant centered. The baby is played with and held by all family members, both male and female. Some observers have described the baby as being treated as a toy for the pleasure of adults, but all must agree that the baby's needs for being held and cuddled are met, and that needing to cry for attention is almost unheard of in an Appalachian family. It is not surprising, therefore, to read a report about a psychiatric clinic for children in one of the more remote eastern Kentucky counties which states that not a single case of infant autism has been observed in that county.[10] Infantile autism, a form of emotional withdrawal, is the result of lack of interpersonal communication and is found among all social classes throughout the nation. The fact that it is not observed at all in this clinic bears out Brown and Schwarzweller's statement spelling out the feelings of those who understand the mountain family:

> The mountain child receives an enormous amount of affective attention by its family . . . the normal pattern is to pick up the child when it seeks attention. As a consequence, children in Appalachia develop an affectionate nature and a warm regard for people. Thus, in effect the childbearing practices characteristic of the mountain family run counter to those that might produce the condition of infant autism.[11]

Child neglect can be found in Appalachia, but it is usually the result of parents not understanding the needs of children or the ill effects which can result from certain foods or certain behaviors.

Parent-Child Relationships

Family relationships are usually determined along sex lines. The father is closer to his sons. In the past at an early age sons entered the mine where their father worked. If the father was a motorman, sons aspired to that position or a higher one. The mother turns much of the home management over to the oldest daughter who often becomes her confidante and develops a pseudo-maturity in her role as a mother surrogate for her younger brothers and sisters. In some homes the older sister is the one who bestows affection, encourages efforts, and disciplines.

Compared with non-Appalachian families, mountain parents are said to over-indulge their children, mainly because they seem to put few restrictions on them. It is almost as if, because life is hard for adults, childhood should be carefree without too many rules and regulations with the child d
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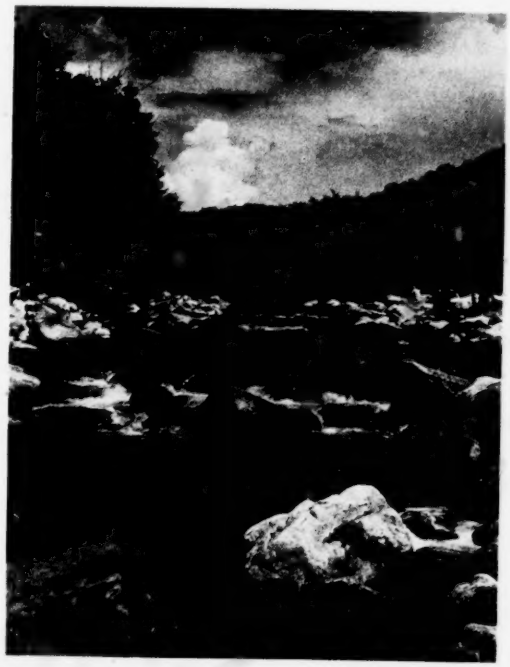

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[10]Harry K. Schwarzweller and James S. Brown, "Education as a Cultural Bridge Between Eastern Kentucky and the Great Society," *Rural Sociology*, Volume 27, December, 1962, pp. 357-373.

[11]James S. Brown and Harry K. Schwarzweller, "The Appalachian Family," (*Change in Rural Appalachia*, John D. Photiadis and Harry K. Schwarzweller, editors. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1970), p. 92.

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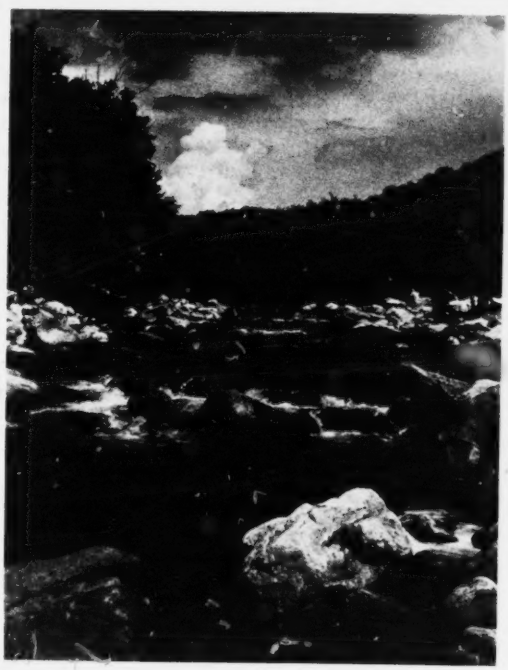
Compared with non-Appalachian families, mountain parents are said to over-indulge their children, mainly because they seem to put few restrictions on them. It is almost as if, because life is hard for adults, childhood should be carefree without too many rules and regulations with the child determining much of his own behavior. Children, therefore, are often free to wander up and down the creek or explore the woods. Some of this freedom is retained in impulsive acts by adults. Deciding to spend a day fishing instead of reporting for work is an example.



At an early age the child is taught by parents and peers to be aware of danger signs—which snakes are harmful and what to do in case of a snake bite. It is not unusual for both the boy and the girl to be taught to shoot a gun and to take pride in marksmanship. Although it will be the boy who hunts, the girl might need a gun for protection.

The mountain mother seldom channels her child's behavior by feeling it is her duty to know everything the child is thinking. Friends are determined by early restraints—such as who the family members are, where they came from and why, and how long they have lived in the mountains. There is not the parental scrutiny of friends there may be in less isolated areas. The child knows with which families his family interacts and selects his friends accordingly. The mother relies on the child's judgment.

Permissive parent-child relationships are not in keeping with expectations in urban areas outside the mountains. An urban parent, including one who has migrated from the mountains, who allows considerable freedom and who expresses little concern about who his child's friends are is said to be neglecting his child. An urban parent who lets his young child have some of his beer or a cigarette, if that is what the child wants, is contributing to the delinquency of a minor, although in many cultures the drinking of beer or wine is part of early childhood ritual. Not only is the parent deemed neglectful, but the child too may be punished. Children who roam city streets and wander in and out of buildings as once they did in deserted sections of a mining camp are accused of running away or being truant.

Meaning of Kinship

The philosophy that "a kin is always a kin, right or wrong," is a key factor in family relationships. To admit to a relationship or blood tie carries with it a degree of acceptance. Isolation and the need to rely on those one knows, primarily the family, has encouraged lines of family loyalty. Therefore, the expression "I claim no kin with the likes of them" carries a very strong negative meaning. To deny a known kin also carries the risk of being scrutinized. For example, a Highlander may say, "Martin Elkins won't admit it, but his grandfather was my grandmother's cousin. He cheated her out of her share of their grandfather's farm. Martin doesn't need to feel so smart 'cause part of what he's got should be mine, though he won't even admit we're kin."

The relationship within the mountain culture is to the role position rather than to the individual. The family has for generations functioned in an environment which designates certain obligations, responsibilities, and privileges to certain positions—such as father, mother, oldest son, or youngest daughter. Reaction is to the role expectation of the position rather than to the individual. Behavior stems not so much from the orientation "How do I feel toward a person?" but rather "How am I expected to feel toward anyone in that position?" The results are strong dependency ties to the relationship rather than to the person. People are kept in touch with simply because they are kin, because one owes such an obligation to parents or grandparents.

Relationships with Non-Relatives

Relationships outside of the family are more guarded. Generally friends are those who have several ties—for example, being from families who have known each other for several generations, who belong to the same church with relatives buried in the same cemetery, who belong to the same lodge, who went to the same school as children, or whose families

have intermarried to the point where individuals consider themselves "practically relatives." Less important is the fact family members work in the same coal mine, and least important, the fact that they live next door to each other.

It is not unusual to keep a psychological distance with casual acquaintances. This is often done through identifying a family not by name but by religion or nationality, their political party, where they came from, or where they now live. To identify individuals then becomes "that Catholic family, those Pollaks, that Yankee, or that man who lives up in the woods." It is almost as if all psychic energy is used in learning the name of the first property owner, and nothing is left to invest in a relationship with new individuals. People who have lived in an area ten or more years may still be "that new family on the old Simpson place."

Individuals who grew up in the "Hunky" section have an entirely different view of a tiny coal-mining community than a descendant of the original Anglo-Saxon settlers in the same community. It would not be unusual for the two individuals never to have known each other, although the community may have fewer than 500 persons a
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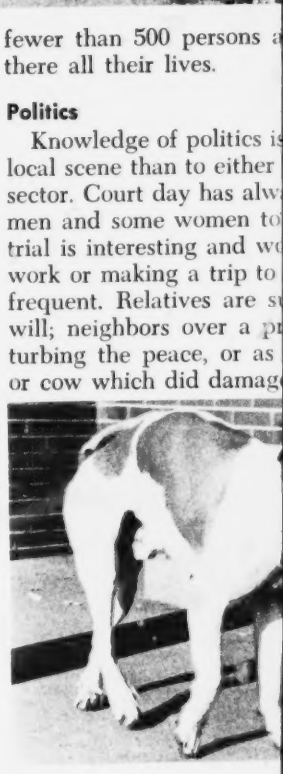

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Politics

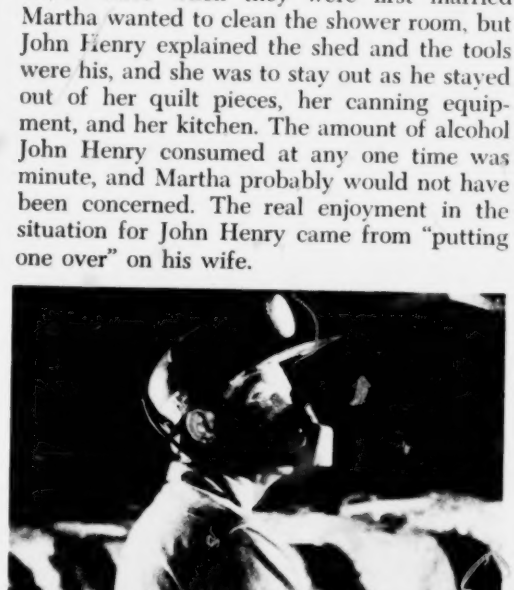
Knowledge of politics is related more to the local scene than to either the state or national sector. Court day has always been one for the men and some women to come to town. Any trial is interesting and worth taking a day off work or making a trip to town. Law suits are frequent. Relatives are sued over a disputed will; neighbors over a property line, for disturbing the peace, or as the owner of a dog or cow which did damage. Domestic quarrels

and acts of violence also account for large numbers of court cases. Songs and legends have always told of lovers' quarrels that terminated in murders and suicides.

Recently students on a work project in the Kentucky mountains reported that many conversations threaten violence to a family member, an acquaintance, or even a stranger. Justice, however, can be strange. The penalty for shooting a doe deer may be more severe than for killing a man. In one instance a man who killed a deer was fined $2,000, jailed thirty days, and forced to replace the deer by buying one from another state. Another man in the same area who shot a man was freed on $500 bail. Later the charges against him were dismissed on a legal technicality, although it was a known fact he had killed the man.

Pranks, Humor, and Gossip

Playing pranks on friends and strangers alike is part of mountaineer behavior. For example, using the male domain of anything related to coal mining and his sense of humor, John Henry kept his wife Martha unaware of his imbibing mountain whiskey. A mine motorman, he kept a bottle in his tool chest marked machine lubricant. His main supply was in a new two-gallon kerosene can kept on a shelf in the shed which housed his homemade shower. He had "fixed the shed up" so he could take a shower when he came off the work shift. He also left his mining equipment there. Once when they were first married Martha wanted to clean the shower room, but John Henry explained the shed and the tools were his, and she was to stay out as he stayed out of her quilt pieces, her canning equipment, and her kitchen. The amount of alcohol John Henry consumed at any one time was minute, and Martha probably would not have been concerned. The real enjoyment in the situation for John Henry came from "putting one over" on his wife.



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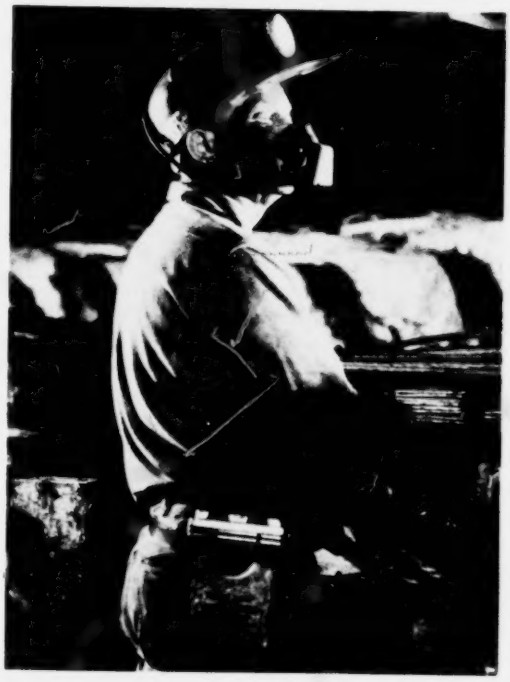

To tell a "whopper" with a straight face, to point out the gullibility of another, gives sheer delight. The prankster respects the person who can "turn the table." If Martha had discovered John Henry's deception and replaced the moonshine with vinegar or real kerosene, he would have reported that with pride because she would have shown herself to be a "past master at his own game."

One Kentucky coal miner told a Vista worker the reason he no longer had Pepsi for lunch was because he was working in a "low vein" where the Pepsi bottle was too tall to hold up to his mouth. The coal in the part of the mines where he was working was in thin ledges, and he had the Vista worker who had never been inside a mine believing the work area and the "lunch room" corresponded to the few inches of coal thickness.

Long before I had seen Appalachia for myself, I knew it vicariously through the experiences of my parents. One favorite family story was that involving the first encounter of my mother and her father-in-law. About six weeks after my parents' marriage my grandfather, who had been unable to attend the wedding, arrived for a brief visit but told my mother he was really there to get something my father had borrowed and neglected to return. He pretended embarrassment in telling her he was after the suit my father had borrowed for the wedding. To have to borrow a suit from a cousin for such an occasion was shocking, but not to return it in six weeks was unthinkable. My mother expressed amazement whereupon my grandfather began expressing his sympathy. Obviously my mother had not understood the situation she was marrying into. She had married a man who not only did not own a suit but who did not own the horse and buggy used during the honeymoon. He had borrowed money to get the license, to pay the minister and honeymoon expenses, to set up their first home, and even worse did not own the photographic equipment he used

in his business. My grandfather continued his story interjecting compliments on my mother's homemade breads and excellent lunch, hinting she might have to bake bread or take in washings in order to help her husband with his debts. She struggled with an impulse to cry, but being part of the hill culture, she would not let him know she was upset. Some two hours later, "his eyes dancing with mischief," grandfather confessed that his story was a "yarn to test her mettle" and that she came through like a true soldier. It was the beginning of a deep affection between two people, both of whom went to great lengths to play tricks on each other.

In one home, two teenage daughters filled the sugar bowl with salt as a prank on a visitor. After taking family members into their confidence, all watched with glee as the guest stirred three teaspoons of salt in his coffee and with hysterical anticipation as he raised the cup to his lips. His voice did not betray his taste buds. "Delicious coffee," he said. They watched and waited, undaunted by his obvious banter. Suddenly he turned around and emptied his cup through an unscreened window, saying as he did so, "A fly dropped in this one. Could I have another cup of coffee?"

In this case the pranksters felt well paid for their efforts as their guest had masterfully "turned the table." They told the story repeatedly, laughing at their own expense.

Having someone counteract with a prank and being made a fool of are two different things. The mountaineer has a fear of being made to look ridiculous. But teasing and playing jokes are not seen as malicious intentions of "belittling others." To be known as a tease or a tormentor is to be complimented for having a sense of humor and for being able to take teasing as well as "to give it out."

Much humor in Appalachia, as elsewhere, is a cover for anxiety. The anxious feeling is turned into an amusing situation. There are jokes about death, about being fired, about accidents and violence. Without joking the individual might be overwhelmed with anxiety and need to deny all feelings to the point of apathy. A mountaineer often uses jokes to free himself from impossible wishes by picturing their fullfillment as ridiculous. An amusing story about efforts to set up a king-size bed in a three-room cabin may drain off some of his desire to own certain furniture he knows he cannot afford. He, therefore, makes it less desirable by ridiculing what it would look like in his home.

Much behavior in the neighborhood and in the family is controlled by shaming and by gossip. There seemingly is delight in discovering someone is not as big, as strong, or as important as he was thought to be. Pointing this out and teasing about it have the elements of making the teaser feel that he is less unworthy, that others also make mistakes and are human.

Hospitality

Hospitality has always been characteristic of the mountaineer to the point of being overdone, of entailing unreasonable sacrifice. For instance, a family who can hardly feed themselves may take in a more destitute family. The first line of sharing is with a relative. A cousin who is out of work will move in with another. The newcomer to an Ohio city will usually live with a relative until he has a job or can afford a home of his own. It is expected that help will be offered. To refuse a meal (whether a relative or a stranger) is an insult. Not to offer is unthinkable and would bring shame to the family.

Hospitality is one thing; what is regarded as unwarranted nosiness is another. Researchers who come into the mountains have frequently been supplied with inaccurate information because Highlanders did not like the way questions were asked, considered answers "nobody's business," or believed the requested information should not be shared outside the family.

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Psychological Ties to the Mountains

For the mountaineer there is a strong psychological tie to the geography of his region which defies distance and time. To watch the sun rise from a great white mist of fog, to see wind-driven rain move across a rocky crest, to see rose lights of sunset turn to purple shadows of evening is to feel at one with the land. The psychological tie to the mountains is further enhanced by the "homeplace." This is the ancestral home, the home where the family lived the longest, or the place where the grandparents were born. These, the homeplace and the mountains themselves, are part of the sense of identity; and for the teachings of this, the mountaineer refers to the Psalms, "I will lift up mine eyes unto the hills, from whence cometh my help."[12]

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[12]Psalms 121:1, King James Translation.

This picture, from the book *Where Hannibal Led Us* (New York: Vantage Press, 1967), shows Dr. Reul talking with a mountain woman about her sewing machine.

Many return trips to Appalachia are to see the area as much as to see people who live there. Frequently visits are made at times when the migrant feels there is a lack of recognition for him in the new community where he lives. He suddenly feels a strong desire to be surrounded by family, friends, and his beloved mountains. When he returns to the mountains he may never talk about his problems. Instead he may spend his time bragging about how well things are going for him in Ohio. Unfortunately employers and school personnel often do not understand the need to return to West Virginia or Kentucky, and are alarmed at absenteeism. This, in turn, makes the newcomer feel less wanted.

Adjustment

All migrants—regardless of where they come from, why they migrate, or what social class or ethnic group they represent—have in common these things:

- *A break with the past.* The Appalachian migrant tries to hold to the past nonetheless.
- *A loss of the familiar.* He tries to go to the familiar, as the home of a relative.
- *A degree of cultural shock.* He tries to establish something of Appalachia outside the mountains.
- *A period when he is between systems.* He may drop or hide his ties in Appalachia before he is firmly established in the new community.
- *A need to prove himself in the new situation.* He may feel he has to be on the defensive because he is unwanted and must remain a stranger in a strange land.

What has been found in studies of migration in all parts of this country,[13] in Europe,[14] and in Australia[15] is that the degree of adjustment of the migrant and the comfort in working through the above depend upon the degree of acceptance shown by the receiver community. The native of the hills may remain forever an outsider or he can become a contributing member of the new community, depending on how others view him or feel toward the area of his birth.

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[13]Roscoe Giffin, "Newcomers from the Southern Mountains," (*The Southern Appalachian Region—A Survey*, Thomas R. Ford, editor. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1962), pp. 79-84. E. Russell Porter, "From Mountain Folk to City Dweller," *Nursing Outlook*, Volume 11, June, 1963, pp. 418-420 and July, 1963, pp. 514-515. Phillip Soskis, "Adjustment of 200 Hungarian Refugee Families in New York City," *Migration News*, Number 1 (January-February, 1969).

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- *A loss of the familiar.* He tries to go to the familiar, as the home of a relative.
- *A degree of cultural shock.* He tries to establish something of Appalachia outside the mountains.
- *A period when he is between systems.* He may drop or hide his ties in Appalachia before he is firmly established in the new community.
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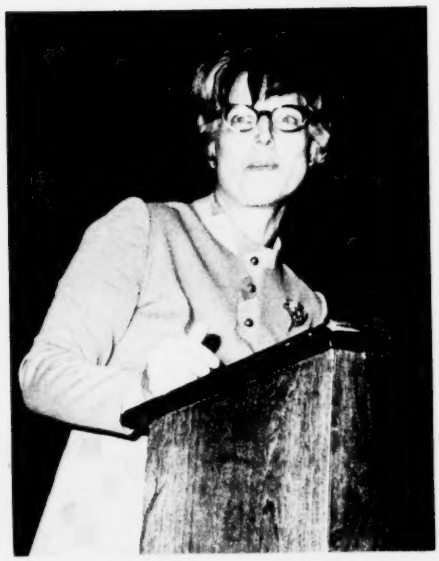


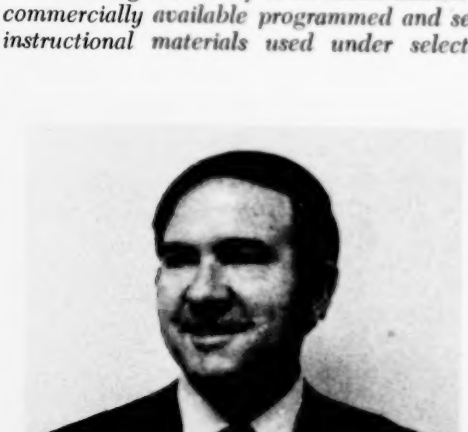
The Learning Laboratory—A Valid System for Adult Basic Educatio

An ancient philosopher once said, "Give me the tools and I can do the job." Today, Adult Basic Education teachers are making similar statements. One tool—or in today's language—one system that has proven to be highly successful is the learning laboratory. The learning laboratory is an individualized instructional system that incorporates a methodology especially designed to meet the needs of a heterogeneous population.

Definition

A learning laboratory is *an accumulation of commercially available programmed and self-instructional materials used under selected instructional procedures and learning principles.* Each adult student is assisted by an educational coordinator in the selection of an appropriate program of study to fit his individual needs. To accommodate the needs of the various learners, each learning laboratory provides the following:

- A variety of programs for varying educational levels in the areas of mathematics, reading, and English.
- A choice of instructional media—kits of programmed materials, tapes and tape recorders, teaching machines, and so forth.
- A variety of learning experiences.
- Continuous evaluation of each learner's progress toward his educational goals by means of periodic checks or tests.



This article was adapted from a presentation made by Joseph B. Carter (Learning Laboratories Coordinator; Department of Community Colleges, North Carolina State Board of Education; Raleigh, North Carolina) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Atwood Lodge on July 24-25, 1972.

Physical Facilities

Physical facilities for an adult learning laboratory are dependent upon the purpose of the laboratory and the availability of space. Operations have, for example, been housed in places such as church basements, business buildings, industries, military reservations, and various existing educational institutions such as public schools and colleges. Regardless of the location, recognition must be given to the various needs that adults have in terms of location and space.

Most adult students have a goal of reading improvement. Therefore, reading materials are usually displayed on a large table near the center of the room or in another readily accessible position. Furniture is arranged to ease the traffic flow of students entering and leaving at different times.

Tables and carrels are used for work areas. Both are available because some students prefer to work at a table with other students, and some prefer to work more independently in a carrel or booth. Generally, when a student selects a work area, he
he is in the laboratory.

Objectives

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- Provision of basic in
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- Reinforcement of wea
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Tables and carrels are used for work areas. Both are available because some students prefer to work at a table with other students, and some prefer to work more independently in a carrel or booth. Generally, when a student selects a work area, he will use it each time he is in the laboratory.

Objectives

ABE learning laboratories are primarily designed for two purposes:

- Provision of basic instruction in literacy training for grades 1-8.
- Reinforcement of weak subject area skills through basic instruction or review work.

Other learning laboratories, housed in the same facilities *but operating under other funding,* sometimes serve purposes beyond the scope of ABE, such as:

- Preparation for the General Educational Development examination or attainment of the Adult High School Diploma.
- Preparation for specific examinations such as the Federal Service Entrance Examination and General Aptitude Test Battery.
- Pre-college work in a variety of subjects—for example, reading, vocabulary, mathematics, foreign language, physics, or chemistry.
- Instructional help in a selected trade, technical, industrial, vocational, or college-parallel curriculum.
- Self-improvement through academic and selected courses of general interest such as interior decoration, pipe fitting, electronics, insurance, or economics.

Coordinator Role

The coordinator is the key individual in the learning laboratory. His role is that of *a facilitator of learning who provides each student with an appropriate instructional program.* The coordinator is aware that all learning is an individual phenomenon and that successful learning activities are dependent upon the

individuality of the student. Therefore, the coordinator must be prepared to do the following:

- Identify the learner's educational objectives, ranging from being able to write his name to working toward a high school equivalency certificate.
- Assess the learner's entry behavior including ability to read, write, and solve mathematical problems; likes and dislikes; vocational and general interests.
- Help the student select appropriate instructional programs.
- Assist the individual in establishing a realistic and productive study schedule.
- Help the individual understand the relationship between his educational goals and his learning rate.
- Make continuous evaluation of, and improvement in, the instructional processes.

In addition, the coordinator should help the learner build confidence and enhance his self-image and self-respect. The coordinator should give approval and encouragement at every opportunity and, thus, create an atmosphere in which instruction is effective. The actual instruction in a programmed learning laboratory requires a professional coordinator with experience and training in the use of programmed materials. He should be trained in remedial techniques, in subject area content, and in the use of audio-visual aids. In addition, he must be creative and alert to opportunities for enriching, extending, reinforcing, and pacing the experiences of learners. He must also establish and maintain an open line of communication, as well as a good working relationship, with each student.

Methodology

The learning laboratory represents an educational innovation that uses the following steps for its methodology:

- The coordinator interviews, counsels, and seeks to establish an effective line of communication with each student.
- Each student is given a diagnostic inventory in reading and math. An English inventory is also given if the student's reading level is sixth grade or above. Deficiencies are noted and an individualized curriculum developed relative to the student's reading ability and stated objectives.
- Having evaluated the student by means of counseling and testing, the coordinator prescribes appropriate programs to take the student from where he is to where he wants to go. The choice of taking or not taking these courses is up to the student. If the student objects to a prescribed course, he is allowed to take a desired course. However, the door is always open for him to change to an easier or more appropriate program.
- The student is thoroughly introduced to programmed instruction. Most students, as a result of previous learning experiences, have been conditioned to learn by reading, listening, interacting w dents, or by a combi ods. *The coordinator's ing the student to i tion.* A working rela ordinator and studen lished whereby the s the program to teach ratio. The student is, he can receive any ne coordinator.
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- The student is thoroughly introduced to programmed instruction. Most students, as a result of previous learning experiences, have been conditioned to learn by reading, listening, interacting with teacher and students, or by a combination of these methods. *The coordinator's role includes orienting the student to individualized instruction.* A working relationship between coordinator and student needs to be established whereby the student depends upon the program to teach him on a one-to-one ratio. The student is, of course, aware that he can receive any necessary help from the coordinator.
- Students are placed on a level at which they are most likely to achieve immediate success. Students are challenged by more difficult tasks but are not bored by being placed in previously mastered skills. The student sets his own best pace—usually one that allows at least an 85 percent rate of comprehension. Frustration is thus reduced to a minimum.
- Since there are no formal classes in a learning laboratory, a realistic schedule is established for each student. He is encouraged to attend four to six hours per week,

or a minimum of two hours per subject per week. If students spend less than the specified time, they usually do not feel the true sense of accomplishment which should be felt by all students. In addition to the established schedule, students are encouraged to work in the laboratory at any convenient time as often as they desire. This type of scheduling helps eliminate interference with job or home responsibilities.

- Chapter, unit, and post-tests are administered to make sure that the student comprehends 85 percent or higher of the content. If satisfactory progress is not being made, the program is modified. Each laboratory also contains standardized test kits for general math, English, reading comprehension, and any other subjects offered.

Instructional Design

The learning laboratory incorporates four major parts of any valid instructional program. The instructional model is as follows:

Behavioral Objectives
Assessment of Entering Behavior
Instructional Procedure(s)
Evaluation

During the initial interview and counseling session, the coordinator helps the student to verbalize his objective, or what he would like to be able to do at the end of instruction. In most cases, this is the beginning of a verbal contract between coordinator and student: *The student has stated his goal and the coordinator has agreed to give the necessary assistance.*

The second phase of the model is devoted to determining what the student can already do, to his likes and dislikes, and to his vocational and general interests. Assessment of the learner's entering behavior is important in that the learning laboratory has been developed on the principle that the student is never asked to do something that he is not capable of doing. Instruction begins where the student needs help.

Instructional procedures vary but are always relevant to the needs of the student. Methods, materials, and techniques are dependent upon a student's past performance, his entry level, his goal, vocational interest, likes or dislikes, and general interest. The learner is also involved in making decisions concerning what materials and methods will be used.

Evaluation of a student's performance provides the feedback that controls future learning activities. Success builds success and becomes the reinforcer that sustains motivation. If a learner is not achieving at a high rate, program changes are made until a high rate of success has been accomplished. An accurate evaluation of one student's progress may also help modify curricula for students with similar needs. Evaluation results should also increase the coordinator's ability to prescribe more valid learning experiences for other students.

Evaluation

For many years in adult education, the question has been, "Should adult students be tested?" The lack of a definite "yes" or "no" answer is part of the problem. Generally, adult students are not frustrated by a formal method of evaluation provided it is conducted by a competent person at an appropriate time. It must be remembered that the learning center system is based on the concept that a student is never asked to perform a task which he cannot do, and so it is with all formal and informal means of evaluation.

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A good start would be to change the word *test* to *inventory, practice sheet, placement guide, periodic check,* or *wrap-up form.* Whatever term is used, evaluation should be conducted before, during, and after instruction. Once the fear of failure has passed, adult students like to see high marks assuring them that they have been successful.

Before Instruction. Evaluation, either formal or informal, is imperative if the coordinator of the learning laboratory is to assess adequately the entry behavior of each student and properly place the student in materials relative to felt need, academic ability, and stated objective.

Standardized tests should not be administered without some knowledge of the student's reading ability. If the student cannot read and comprehend at the level at which the test was developed, test results are invalid and should not be used for placement. A student's motivation is sustained through success. Therefore, each student should achieve initial success regardless of the activity. Initial evaluation, if conducted properly, will help the coordinator successfully place the student and serve as a benchmark for future evaluation.

During Instruction. Periodic evaluation through the use of comprehensive checks, unit tests, and chapter tests will serve as a means to evaluate instruction. All students should achieve 80 to 85 percent comprehension before advancing to a more difficult task. Comprehension of less than 80 percent may warrant additional instruction in the same materials or introduction of new materials covering the same skill or concept. Any good model for individualizing instruction should have a recycling capability to compensate for achievement below 80 percent.

After Instruction. Post-instructional evaluation is necessary to determine if the student has mastered the material related to the instructional objectives. This type of feedback can also be used to design more advanced

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types of learning activities and evaluate the student in relationship to his academic goal.

Basic Materials and Auto-Tutorial Equipment

Materials available in most learning laboratories include from six to ten programs or kits in each major content area—reading, language arts, and mathematics. A variety of additional programs are available for such subjects as social studies, science, and vocational orientation.

The success of the learning laboratory and the concept of individualized, self-paced instruction have been achieved by the utilization of a multi-media instructional approach. The learning laboratory is equipped with items of auto-tutorial equipment such as Language Masters, tape and cassette recorders, Craig Readers, record players, filmstrip projectors, and Auto-Tutors. These items help present materials and stimulate a multisensory type of interaction between the student and the subject to be learned.

Learning Laboratory Advantages

The learning laboratory has many advantages over the traditional classroom setting with respect to improved instruction and student attitudes toward the learning process. Among these advantages are the following:

- Most students achieve success as a result of the nature of programmed instruction and the methodology used.
- The instructional materials used in learning laboratories reduce pupil frustration since each student sets his own pace based on his own rate of comprehension.
- Personality conflicts are significantly reduced since the student interacts with the programmed text under coordinator guidance.
- The laboratories are designed to meet individual needs on a variety of levels—educational, social, and psychological.
- Scheduling is flexible. For example, if due to inclement weather or illness, the student misses his regularly scheduled period in the laboratory, he does not fall behind as he would in a traditional classroom. Persons employed in seasonal occupations can use additional free time to advantage.
- Under the guidance of the coordinator, the student takes an active part in selecting appropriate materials for study.
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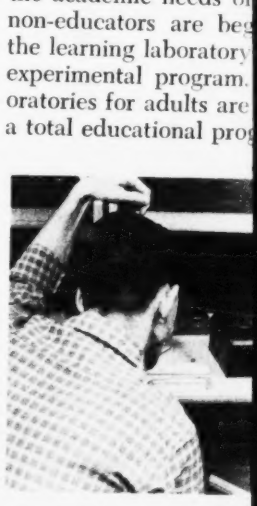

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- Under the guidance of the coordinator, the student takes an active part in selecting appropriate materials for study.
- The nature of the laboratory instructional materials compels the student to advance in a logical manner with minimum deviations from the program as it is outlined.
- The programs offered to the student in the laboratory have greater sequence and continuity than their traditional counterparts in that the same or a similar program may be continued in another laboratory somewhere else in the state. For example, work begun in a correctional institution can be picked up at a hometown learning laboratory following the inmate's release.
- The average cost per student contact hour is less than one dollar.

Summary

In most states, the learning laboratory approach has experienced enormous growth and success since the concept was developed in the early sixties. The increase can be measured in terms of the number of new laboratories operating and the increase in total enrollment. Acceleration has been influenced by greater emphasis on individualized instruction and in efforts by administrative personnel to meet the academic needs of adults. Educators and non-educators are beginning to realize that the learning laboratory system is no longer an experimental program. Instead, learning laboratories for adults are valid and necessary in a total educational program.

Reading Instruction for Illiterate Adults

The functionally illiterate adult, reading at or below the third grade reading level, often finds himself in helpless and embarrassing positions. He can neither read the help wanted ads to find a job nor fill out a job application form even if, somehow, he finds his way to a prospective employer's office. Street and building signs mean little or nothing. Newspapers, magazines, menus, advertisements, letters, bills, checks, prescription directions, posters, flyers, and other printed materials have little or no meaning.

The Need

More than eighteen million adult illiterates are now struggling to survive in the United States. There are also a proportionate number of school children who are destined to a similar plight. Because of inadequate experiential backgrounds, motivation, and language development, these children fall behind in reading during their first year of school. This reading deficit grows in epidemic proportions with each successive year of school, until as teenagers, they may be reading as much as eight or nine grade levels below their potential reading level. Chronic illiteracy of this type affects success in school learning, in other areas of learning, and in job opportunities.

One urban junior high school principal reports that sixty-five of his students have a 2.0 grade level of reading or below. These students are only a few of the hundreds of students in his school who are severely retarded in reading. If these startling statistics were compiled for all schools in the country, the total would be staggering. Thus, there appears to be no end to the number of illiterates who must be taught to read in adult education classes. But why so many?

This article was adapted from a presentation made by Dr. John E. George (Reading Resource Center Director, University of Missouri—Kansas City) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Atwood Lodge on July 24-26, 1972.

The Causes

Knowing the causes of illiteracy may not enable us to eliminate them. But we should at least know what the barriers to learning are before we attempt to circumvent them by using alternative instructional approaches, methods, and materials. Often the adult illiterate is passed off as "culturally inadequate" or even "dyslexic," doomed to a life of illiteracy because of some type of neurological impairment or underdevelopment of the brain.

Sometimes we look for a simple cause for illiteracy. For example, we might cite poor schools or family environments devoid of reading materials and family members who read. Such answers are far too simple. Reading is a complex process and the causes of illiteracy are usually varied and intricately interrelated.

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The causes of illiteracy do, however, fall within a few general categories. Consideration of the following list of causes and the accompanying questions could help in the selection of ABE reading instruction approaches, methods, and materials.

Physiological Attributes

General Health. How much do you know about each student's general health? Is he functioning well enough physically to attend to the learning activities planned? Did poor health during earlier years keep him away from important learning experiences?

Eyes. How well can each adult in your class see? Can he see regular-size print held at arm's length? Can he see material at the distance which you expect him to see? Do any students seem to get eye strain when doing close work? If so, do you or someone on the staff know how to give a screening test for an eye muscle defect such as esophoria or exophoria?

Ears. Can each adult hear what you say to him? Can he understand your dialect? Can he discriminate between subtle sound differences in words such as *top* and *tot* or *fad* and *fed?* Are you familiar with the use and principle of the audiometer? Do you know how to give and interpret the Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test?

Speech. What is the relationship of the adult's speech and his hearing ability? Are the speech differences you detect traceable simply to a dialect different from yours? If so, are you making a value judgment about the worth of your dialect and your student's? Are you putting first things first—for example, is learning how to read more important than learning (if it were possible) a dialect like yours?

Motor Activity. Do you ever consider that the adult you are teaching may never have written a sentence or even a word or that he may not have had a pencil in his hand for years? Are there adults in your class who do not know that words are words or that one reads and writes letters in words and sentences from left to right? How do you know the answers to these questions?

Mental Capacity

Do you know that two-year-old children of average intelligence have been taught to read? Do you know that adults with a mental age of two years would be institutionalized and not in your adult education classroom? And that, therefore, each illiterate adult who comes to your classroom is bright enough to learn to read? *Do you know that any adult who talks can learn to read?*

Emotional Stability

Do you know that inability to read can cause emotional problems and vice versa? Do you try to determine in your own mind the causes of a student's fingernail biting, inattentiveness, self-consciousness, aggressiveness, gossiping, stuttering, sullenness, meandering, talkativeness, hyperactivity, or apparent laziness?

Educational Factors

School Entrance Age. Did any adult in your class enter first grade at an age much younger than other children? If so, how did this age deficit affect his learning development and especially his ability to relate to classmates in his early years and in the important teenage identity years?

School Attendance Record. Were there factors which did not permit one or more of your adult students to attend school regularly when he was younger? How much schooling was missed? What were the reasons for poor attendance?

School History. Can you determine whether each adult student in your class met with more successes or more failures during his previous schooling? Were little failures or big failures in school embarrassing or even traumatic? Do you realize that previous experience with school may have conditioned him either to succeed or fail in your class? In what subjects did each adult in your class succeed? In what subjects did he fail? Why was there failure in certain subjects and not in others? Was he given books that he could not read? Were the instructional steps programmed for the class rather than for individual students?

Environmental Factors

Home Background. What effect did your student's parents have on his reading ability?

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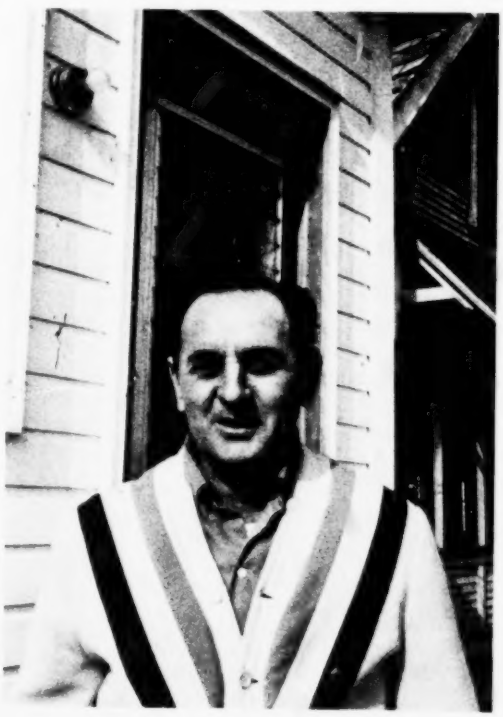

Did his parents value reading? Did they read to him when he was in his early years (six months to six years)? Did your student have books of his own? Did his parents have books, newspapers, and magazines in the home? Were there printed materials such as labels, charts, maps, pictures with captions, notes, and recipes? Did the parents read? Was there much conversation in the home? What type and how many television programs were watched? Were the parents supportive rather than punitive to the child as he developed?

Experience Background. How much does each adult student know about various aspects of life? Are his experiences and interests in few or many areas? How much does he know about the world outside his immediate neighborhood? How much does he know about history, science, literature, music, consumer and home economics, mechanics, or travel? Were his experiences from real life, books, television, movies, or discussion? What in your class fills in the gaps in the experiential background of each student?

Linguistic Background. Do any of your students have a bilingual background? If so, what other language does the student use? Does he have a speaking, listening, or reading knowledge of the language? What levels of proficiency in the other language did he achieve? At what stage in his development did he use the other language? How much of an influence is the other language now? What value does your student place on his knowledge of and experience with another language? How has the bilingual background affected his learning to read English? Has the use of a different dialect (*e.g.*, Black or Bostonian dialect) had any effect on his learning to read? What methods of teaching reading take into consideration, and even honor, the student's dialect and English usage? Are you using these methods?

The Approach

Thousands of functionally illiterate adults have attended adult education classrooms one time—and one time only. But why only one time? The need to learn reading and other skills was felt deeply by these adults. They took the first step. They believed they would succeed. But we in adult education offered them only more failure instead of success. Failure as adult educators can usually be traced to six areas: needs, tests, philosophy, environment, methods, and materials.

Needs

Before much learning satisfying the adult's cognitive needs can take place, certain other basic needs must be satisfied. Abraham Maslow of Harvard classified these needs as *physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem,* and *self-actualization.*[1] For the adult educator, this means that before reading instruction or other instruction is attempted he should—to the best of his ability—make certain that the adult student feels as follows:

Physiologically Fit—neither hungry, thirsty, tired, nor otherwise physically uncomfortable. Proceeding with instruction without considering physiological needs could mean that the adult will pay more attention to bodily discomforts than to steps in learning which the instructor has planned. For example, the adult who is hungry will be thinking more about food than about reading.

Safe—neither afraid of the classroom atmosphere itself nor of what might wait for him after the class session. The adult whose thoughts are on his safety will have little time to think about how to get meaning from printed symbols.

Part of the Group—neither alone nor apart from the instructor and other students. The

adult ostracized (perhaps subconsciously) because he is dirty, smelly, retarded, or otherwise different from others may spend more time thinking about belonging than about reading.

Important—neither like "just another student" nor like a reject, a loser, an underachiever, a dropout, an illiterate, an outcast, a welfare recipient, ad infinitum. The adult who feels more important in situations other than the ABE classroom may leave the program entirely.

Capable—neither incapacitated nor unable to progress in the classroom as well as the outside world. The adult who feels little hope for developing his talents may associate this feeling with learning to read and may seek the shadows rather than the classroom.

Meeting needs, then, is the first step toward providing an approach that works. Once the above needs have been considered, the adult educator can proceed with reading instruction. But when instruction proceeds before basic needs are considered, learning is hampered and adult students are lost.

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[1] A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality.* New York: Harper Brothers, 1954.

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Tests

Sometimes a testing program frightens away potential adult students. In an attempt to find out what skills the adult student should acquire, some instructors forget to meet the needs listed above and forge on—regardless of the consequences—to obtain test results. The outcome is usually disastrous for the egos of both student and instructor.

The following questions are designed as a test-administration guide for the ABE instructor. Once the questions are answered, most of them affirmatively, the instructor should feel free to proceed with testing.

- Is the physical environment in which the testing is to be done non-threatening?
- Is the test perceived by the adult as something of interest or of value? That is, does he understand that the test is something that will help him?
- Is the test content appropriate and meaningful? In other words, is the format and content adult rather than childish?
- Is the difficulty of the test items appropriate? A test with all easy items will not show how high the adult can achieve. On the other hand, a test on which every item is unknown will not show how low the adult is in achievement.
- Are the test directions complete? Are they understood by the student?
- Have you personally taken the test? Are you certain that the student understands the directions? Are some questions ambiguous? Is the timing realistic?
- Would the adult get the same score tomorrow on the test he took today if he learned nothing in the interim? That is, is the test reliable or unreliable, varying for some reason from administration to administration?
- Do test results provide the information you need? In other words, is it a good yardstick of what you want to measure?

- What does the score mean? If the score is a 4.0 reading level, what fourth grade achievers is the adult being compared to: fourth grade children? adults? urbanites? suburbanites? In other words, is the norm group such that scores are meaningful?
- Would the adult get similar scores if he were to take other tests on similar material? Does the test you are using compare favorably with other tests?
- Can scores be related to particular educational goals? Are the scores meaningful in terms of levels of ABE instruction?
- Are the first test items easy and later items more difficult?
- Have practice items been given to help the adult know exactly how to take the test?
- Were pointers, such as the ones below, given on how to take tests?

  Learn ahead of time what the test will be like.

  Be ready by having a positive attitude, a full stomach, and sufficient rest.

  Take a seat where there will be few distractions.

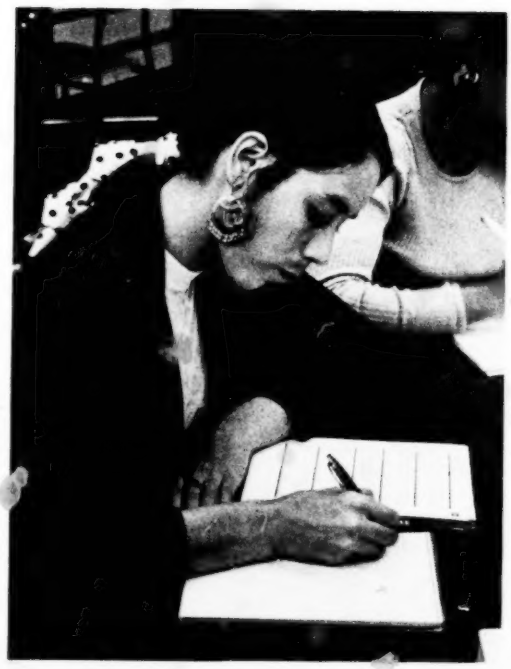
  Follow test instructions and mark answer sheets carefully.

  Skim written material for main points.

  Scan for specific information or answers—such as a date, name, figure, or fact.

  Watch timing, work quickly, and guess if necessary.

  Use cues to determine the right answers. For example, *always, never,* and *all* often indicate false answers whereas *sometimes, usually,* or *some* often indicate true answers.
- Will the test results give just enough or too much information? In other words, should an *achievement test* which provides global scores be given rather than a *diagnostic test* which provides sub-test scores?
- Would an informal, teacher-made reading test or inventory be more appropriate than a standardized test providing information on reliability, validity, and norms? If an informal inventory is used, does it contain material related to the adult's interests?
- Do you understand that the number of years in school does not indicate achievement level? For example, one employment service study shows that 9.4 years of schooling meant an average of 6.0 grades of achievement.
- Is it necessary to give all parts of the test scheduled or even give the test at all?
- Will test results be a basis for choosing instructional methods and materials, prescribing instruction, determining progress, or evaluating instruction?



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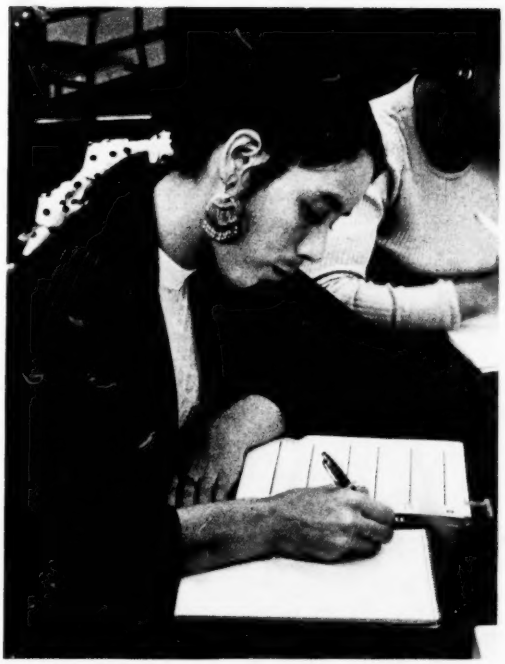

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Philosophy

Many adult education students are driven from the classroom by the prevailing philosophy of the school or the individual instructor. "Why and how should adults receive basic instruction?" is a good question for each adult educator to ask himself. The answer would vary from school to school and in many instances from teacher to teacher within the same school. Some teachers believe that ABE instruction is designed to develop the intellect; some believe it is to further vocational development; some, for personal enhancement or pleasure; some, to prepare the adult for the GED or high school equivalency examinations; and some, a combination.

GED instruction (where lessons are equivalent to those offered in high school) is not for the adult functioning below a fifth grade reading level. Such an adult is unable to read GED preparatory materials. He is unable to read the questions that appear in sample GED examinations. In fact, even if he knew an answer to a question, he could not find the answer among the multiple choices provided. *GED instruction, then, is definitely not for the functionally illiterate adult.*

Another good question for ABE educators is, "Should the instruction for all students be pre-determined, prescribed, and carried out regardless of a changing world, teacher, and student?" In some programs, all students reading at a particular level get the same package of instruction regardless of the personal needs of individual students. Students whose instruction is patterned after some arbitrarily defined adult usually find that the program does not fit them very well. These students are often the ones who drop out of classes first.

Take the student from where he is and take him as far as his potential and desire permit is a philosophical point of view often ignored in adult education classrooms. But if needs are met, if tests are administered sensibly, and if methods and materials are chosen and used carefully, we in adult education can take adults from where they are to where they wish and are able to be.

Environment

Many methods, or systematic plans, are available to teach beginning reading. Whatever method is used, an ABE instructor should remember seven things:

- Control the social and physical environment in which the learning takes place.
- Meet as many basic student needs as possible.
- Pace the learning so that there is almost invariably no failure.
- Make learning quick, enjoyable, and unrepetitive.
- Use a method that relates closely to the adult's language capabilities and experiences.
- Keep the adult's achievement level and rate of progress confidential.
- Give the adult praise or some other form of reward for every bit of progress—no matter how small.

As mentioned in the first suggestion above, both the social and the physical environment within the classroom should be controlled. In other words, the instructor should constantly attend to the improvement of person-to-person relationships of all individuals in the classroom as well as make the classroom itself attractive and conducive to learning.

The Social Environment. The social situation in every classroom can and should be improved. Class size may be increased or decreased to improve the "togetherness" feeling of the students. Activities can be designed which pair students so that individuals get to know one another. Projects involving small groups of three or four students can be used to add cohesiveness to the class. Coffee breaks, games, and conversation time not only reinforce the learning that is taking place but also permit the students to get to know one another. The instructor himself can and should become a friend of each student. The instructor of a class of twelve is doing a good job in this area when he can say, "Students who come to my class have twelve friends—

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The Physical Environment. The physical environment of almost every classroom can be improved. Adults should be drawn to the classroom by its comfort and attractiveness. The non-instructional material in the classroom has a definite effect on learning and should be adjusted to enhance learning. Desks, tables, chairs, bookcases, windows, window shades, doors, walls, floor covering, and even the instructor's clothing should be attractive enough to draw students to the classroom. Other physical aspects of the classroom such as noise, lighting, and temperature can either attract or distract adult learners. Changing the non-instructional environment could mean the difference between keeping or losing students.

Most instructional material can be attractive if displayed in an interesting manner. Much can be learned by adults who are continually drawn to books, workbooks, newspapers, magazines, handbooks, guidebooks, manuals, pamphlets, paperbacks, pictures, charts, photographs, games, and bulletin boards. Other material such as films, filmstrips, records, tapes, and other audio-visual materials can be used to attract an adult to the classroom. By responding to instructional material on an informal basis the adult can learn many reading skills without receiving formal reading instruction.

Methods

Formal methods of teaching beginning reading incorporate one or more of the following approaches: the synthetic phonics approach, the analytic phonics approach, the linguistic approach, the VAKT (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile) approach, the whole word approach, or the language experience approach. The first four approaches place greater emphasis initially on discrimination. The latter two emphasize meaning to a somewhat greater

degree. A brief description of these six approaches follows:[2]

The Synthetic Phonics Approach. In this approach the teacher first ascribes a sound to various letters and letter combinations. The sound is that which he believes the letters will represent when found in words which the student later will be asked to decode. Letters such as *p, t, s,* and *a* are ascribed sounds which the instructor feels the letters usually "will say" when found in whole words. After this type of instruction, the student would be expected to read words like *sat, tap, at, past,* and *taps* and sentences such as *Pat sat at last.* The student customarily would be guided away from words such as *pa* and *as* which do not follow the sound/symbol generalizations taught. Seldom, however, do the sounds which are ascribed to isolated individual letters appear as such in spoken words. For example, there is no *tuh* sound when any of the preceding words are pronounced. This can be further illustrated by pronouncing aloud the words *tap* and *pat* and noticing in the two words first the difference in the *p* sound and then the difference in the *t* sound. Four distinct sounds are represented by the *t* and *p,* none of which is a *tuh* or a *puh* sound.

Even when a rule is proposed ascribing one sound to a letter or combination of letters, the number of words which illustrate exceptions to the rule often outnumber the words which follow the rule.

The Analytic Phonics Approach. An improvement upon the synthetic phonics approach is the analytic phonics approach. In this approach the teacher begins the instruction by presenting a written word whose sound is familiar to the student. The word is pronounced aloud by the teacher and perhaps by the student. The teacher may ask, "What is the first sound? The last sound? The sound which follows the first sound? The analytic phonics approach emphasizes meaning as well as discrimination and seems to be more effective than synthetic phonics methods. The effectiveness of the analytic phonics approach could be due to the fact that the learning of reading is initially associated with words which relate meaningfully to the student's language and experience. Also, certain students seem to find it easier to relate the learning of grapheme/phoneme correspondences to

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[2] John E. George, "Variables in Beginning Reading," *Improving Reading Ability Around the World.* Proceedings of the Third World Congress on Reading, Sydney, Australia. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1971.

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reading by applying analytical thought processes rather than by applying thought processes which require synthesizing parts into a whole.

The Linguistic Approach. The linguistic word family, or phonogram approach, requires the student to identify initial, terminal, and other grapheme/phoneme relationships within words which rhyme or words which compose a word family. For example, the teacher might begin with the *et* family (*bet, get, jet, let,* etc.) and progress to the *etch* family (*etch, fetch, ketch, stretch,* etc.). Later the student is given sentences and stories containing words learned in word families.

The VAKT (Visual-Auditory-Kinesthetic-Tactile Approach). The VAKT approach uses most of the student's sensory modalities. The student looks at the printed word, hears the word, and then touches and traces over the word with his finger while saying the word aloud. The main emphasis is placed upon the discrimination of whole words. Research has not proven the VAKT approach to be more effective than other approaches when used with either normal or abnormal students. The VAKT approach is extremely time consuming and may be discouraging to most students for this reason alone.

The Whole Word Approach. The whole word approach, or the look-say approach, has received its share of criticism even though most words which individuals learn to read initially are learned as wholes rather than sounded out phoneme by phoneme. In this approach, the student is shown a word either in isolation or in context; the sound of the word or a picture is presented with the word; and the student learns to associate the printed word with the sound.

The Language Experience Approach. The language experience approach enables the student to read whole words in a context which relates meaningfully to both his language and experience. The procedure will vary depending upon the sophistication of the learner and his knowledge of reading, but the approach can be used successfully with any beginning reader. A language experience method developed by this writer follows:[3]

First, the teacher asks the student to discuss an actual past experience or to describe a picture or something that is taking place at the moment. The sentences that are elicited are repeated by the student after each word in the sentence is printed. The teacher transcribes the sentence in manuscript form on a piece of paper in front of the student as he says the sentence as many times as there are words in the sentence. After the sentence is finally transcribed, the student is asked to read the sentence aloud; he is then asked to read random words from the sentence; and, finally he is asked to read the entire sentence again along with any preceding sentences. *The student is reminded to read the way he talks.*

After several related sentences are recorded in this manner, the student is asked to give his story a title. The title is recorded and repeated in the same manner as a new sentence. The student then reads the title and the story together.

He makes his own copy of the story in manuscript form, reads the story aloud again, and finally illustrates the story with a sketch, clipping, or photograph.

Word cards are made using the words from the story so that the student can practice reading his words both in and out of context. The story and word cards are reviewed between and at subsequent class sessions. Other language experience stories are also added to the student's collection.

A few rather obvious rules of thumb concerning the above methods are worth mentioning:

- Use an approach other than phonics for a student who has difficulty hearing or discriminating between speech sounds.
- Incorporate into the instruction the use of the student's own words regardless of which approach is used.
- Emphasize an approach or combination of approaches which works for an individual student rather than pu
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[3] John E. George. *The Tutor-Student System: Sounds in Words-Phonics, Reading Words, Reading Sentences.* Kansas City, Missouri: National Tutoring Institute, 1971. A. V. Manzo and Victor Culver, "Some Innovations in Teaching the Decoding Aspects of Reading." A paper presented at Missouri Right-to-read Council Conference, Jefferson City, Missouri, January, 1972.

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- Use an approach other than phonics for a student who has difficulty hearing or discriminating between speech sounds.
- Incorporate into the instruction the use of the student's own words regardless of which approach is used.
- Emphasize an approach or combination of approaches which works for an individual student rather than pursuing doggedly a specific approach simply because it is a favorite or because it is the approach used in available instructional materials.
- Keep a record of the words the adult learns. These words out of context can be studied until they are learned well.
- Read something exciting to the student and help the student read something interesting by himself. These activities will give the student more reasons to pursue the method being used. Teaching a student the skill of reading without "hooking him on books" means that the instructor has done only half the job of teaching reading.

Materials

The adult educator must also be familiar with a variety of recreational and vocational reading materials. The materials should vary widely in interest levels and readability levels. By responding to attractive reading material on an informal basis, the adult can learn many reading skills without receiving formal reading instruction. While comprehension skills such as reading for the *main idea, details, sequence*, or *organization of ideas* can be taught in a formal manner, these skills might more easily and effectively be learned through the use of easy-to-read materials.

Instructional reading materials which can be used on an individual basis should be readily available to the adult. Care should be taken to provide materials which will present little or no difficulty. The adult should look at the materials and say to himself, "Success is a certainty; failure, an impossibility."

A readability check of all materials should be made so that the reading level of the student can be matched with the readability level of the material. In almost all instances, the readability level of the material used should be at least a grade level below the reading level of the student. Readability formulas—such as Spache, Dale-Chall, or Gunning—can

be used to give rough approximations of the difficulty of the material. But perhaps the best method for matching a beginning reader with material is to have him read a part of the material aloud. *If he misses only one or no words out of one hundred,* he can probably handle the material independently. *If he misses between two and ten words out of one hundred,* he will need the instructor at his elbow to help him. *If he misses more than ten words out of one hundred,* the material probably should not be used until he learns to read better.

An excellent list of books for ABE students was prepared by Elma Knapp of the Cleveland Public Library. Mrs. Knapp has collected instructional books for adults functioning at Basic I (Grades 1-3), Basic II (Grades 4-6), and Basic III (Grades 7-9). She has classified the books into areas such as English, handwriting and spelling, readers, arithmetic, social studies, budgeting, grammar, and speech. Adult educators will find the use of many of these books a great aid in teaching adult students, whether they are foreign-born persons studying to become citizens or functionally illiterate native-born citizens upgrading their education.

Evaluating the effectiveness of adult instructional materials is not as easy as it seems. Packaging, art work, and format may make essentially worthless material appear worthwhile. Publishers' promises and advertising ploys such as the bandwagon "everybody's using it" technique and the testimonial "Joe Namath says it works" technique get near worthless material into the classroom. The point is: *Does it work?*

Using a checklist for evaluating materials without having actually used the materials is somewhat futile. There are a number of characteristics to look for, however, when considering the purchase or use of material for teaching adults beginning reading. The material should pass the following tests:

- Meet students' needs including a feeling of worth.
- Eliminate failure through careful step-by-step programming.
- Provide considerable immediate learning, from the very first lesson.
- Make learning an enjoyable, interesting, and social (person-to-person) experience.
- Strengthen all the language arts—listening, speaking, and writing, as well as reading.

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- Make learning an enjoyable, interesting, and social (person-to-person) experience.
- Strengthen all the language arts—listening, speaking, and writing, as well as reading.
- Teach phonics (letter/sound relationships), as well as the ability to read words and sentences.
- Contain a built-in reward system using praise or some other form of reward.
- Provide suggestions, activities, or exercises for both review and enrichment of learning.
- Relate closely to students' language.
- Relate closely to students' experiences.
- Have an appropriate format, binding, size of print, index, level of maturity, and cost.
- Keep progress and achievement level confidential.

Besides having an abundance of reading materials in the classroom, the ABE instructor should use his chosen materials carefully so that they in no way threaten or discourage the adult student. Using materials which let students know at what level others in the classroom are achieving, for example, could result in embarrassed students and a half-empty or empty classroom.

The Conclusion

To summarize, it should be emphasized that there is a crying need for effective adult beginning reading instruction. Millions of adults cannot read. The causes of illiteracy will probably be with us for quite some time. But even more tragically, thousands of adults who attend adult education classes each year to learn reading fail to learn. Many drop out after only one or two class sessions. These adults could have learned to read had teachers used a more refined approach for their instruction. Careful attention and immediate action in the areas of assessment of individual needs, testing programs, philosophy, methods, and materials could save the adult illiterates who plan to drop out of our class tomorrow. *We must act today; not tomorrow. Acting today is something we owe ourselves—and others.*

Teaching English as a Second Language — A Challenging Respons

To be successful, an English as a Second Language or ESL program must fill a language gap which prevents the non-standard speaker from attaining full identity in the community in which he lives. The successful ESL curriculum must bring out the timid people who are afraid to go to formal institutions, the educated students from other countries, and persons too bashful or too proud to admit they don't understand the English language.

Stop and picture yourself for a moment. Imagine your child sick and you unable to read the prescription on the medicine bottle. Imagine the anxiety at every piece of mail, even a simple advertisement, and the problem of asking and then trusting a neighbor to read it for you. Think also of these words of Thomas Carlyle: "Should one man die ignorant who had the capacity for knowledge, this would be a tragedy."

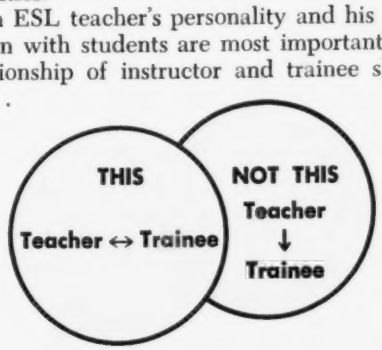
Have you ever experienced a crash program in learning sentences in an unknown language? Have you felt the frustration, the difficulty, the feeling of mouthing something partially or totally incomprehensible? If so, these experiences and feelings should help you to understand the concerns of ESL students.

This article was adapted from presentations made by the Por-Fin consultant team (Bexar County Adult Continuing Education Program; San Antonio, Texas) held in Toledo on August 9-11, 1972. Pictured in the front row, left to right, are Dr. Barbara McDougall, Josephine Avina, and Velia Bird. Robert Avina (Director), Willis Bird, and Richard Lobo are in back.

A Challenge for Teachers

The ESL teacher faces a challenging responsibility. He must help the speaker of another language maintain pride in his native language and cultural heritage, yet move gradually toward competence in a new language and adjustment in a second culture. The teacher must enable the student to communicate basic needs, wants, desires, ideas, and frustrations in the language of his community. The teacher must make it possible for the student to participate as quickly as possible with those around him in normal daily activities.

An ESL teacher's personality and his interaction with students are most important. The relationship of instructor and trainee should be . . .



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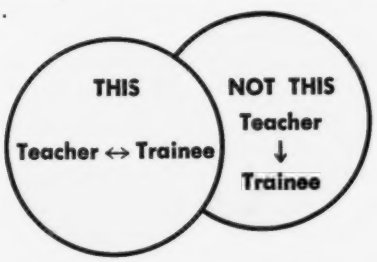

The teacher also has an opportunity to enrich by positive assistance the experiences of people who live in two cultures.

An ESL teacher is responsible for the classroom atmosphere he creates. A relaxed, informal environment is conducive to learning. The furniture, material, methods, vocabulary —the whole instructional program must be directly related to adults.

A Relevant Curriculum

The ESL student deserves deep respect. Would you go to school three or four times a week after working eight or more hours a day? When such persons come to class and you don't give them what they want or what they can use, they won't come back. ESL students don't want to waste their time. That's one reason students should be involved in planning or writing dialogues. Often something the teacher is unaware that the student has a pressing need to learn is revealed through dialogue suggestions.

A good ESL teacher works with—not against —the broad, rich experience that adults bring into the classroom. He uses background experience for more effective means of instruction. An adult is much more motivated to learn if he can see that the material he is learning is important to his family's needs and his everyday life. Adults want to know about tax forms, social security, laws of the community, labor unions, and social services. These and other practical topics can be used to teach basic skills.

An effective ESL curriculum in an ABE setting must begin with the everyday concerns which mature adults bring into the classroom. By choosing materials which are relevant to individual students, the teacher can begin to teach the three Rs. The curriculum must be directed toward the people be-

ing served. Ask yourself these questions. Is your curriculum adult oriented and based on adult experiences? Is the student being taught American English based on his life situations instead of "schoolbook English"? If not, take a good look at what should be changed.

A Conversational Approach

Today, ESL programs stress the importance of the oral—or more specifically, the conversational—approach in the teaching of English. Extensive research has documented the fact that language is primarily a tool for verbal communication. Past practice was to consider the language learning process as a basically intellectual activity. Teachers, therefore, had a tendency to talk about the language and to endeavor to explain it rationally rather than to teach the student to converse in the language itself.

Language learning is not strictly an intellectual activity, but rather a skill, and like any other skill it is best taught by drill, repetition, and meaningful manipulation. To illustrate, most women and many men can drive a car long before they know anything about the parts or function of the engine. The sequence of development of language skills is somewhat similar. *If the sequence is natural, it will proceed from listening to speaking, to reading, and last to writing.*

Most children in the United States speak English before they go to school. They study grammar after they have learned to understand and speak the language. Why then should we expect adult speakers of another language to begin with grammar?

Books and written language should be excluded from beginning ESL instruction. Instead, the learner should look to the teacher for good modeling techniques. The student should not begin by learning words in isolation or rules of grammar. *When the teacher begins orally with short whole sentences, the student can learn words and features of grammar at the same time.*

Student knowledge of the particular sentence is not as important as development of the skill for using the particular pattern. He may or may not need to know, "This is a _____." He does, however, need the basic structure plus the intonation that is developed with the statement pattern. He also needs skill in producing basic English sounds intelligibly. Furthermore, the student needs to be able to discriminate between two or more utterances which he may never have heard before. He must also be able to go beyond the pattern which he has memorized to create new sentences of his own.

The pattern to be learned should be modeled at least three times by the teacher before any response is requested from students. Modeling should be in a clear normal voice with proper rhythm. Patterns are internalized through repetition. The amount of repetition should be determined by how difficult the pattern is. Patterns that resemble those in the student's native language or that are of simple structure
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Techniques are important, but not the last word in language learning. Communication is. Furthermore, the student should advance to other ABE subject areas soon after communication in English is possible.

After the teacher has modeled the sentence or pattern three times, response is requested from the entire group, then sections, and last individuals. The teacher should continue until he is satisfied that is the best the students can do for the moment. The value of moving from group response to section response to individual response is that shy or inhibited students are able to repeat and hear a sentence or pattern from four to eight times before they are called on to respond individually. *Perfection is not the aim at first. Communication is.*

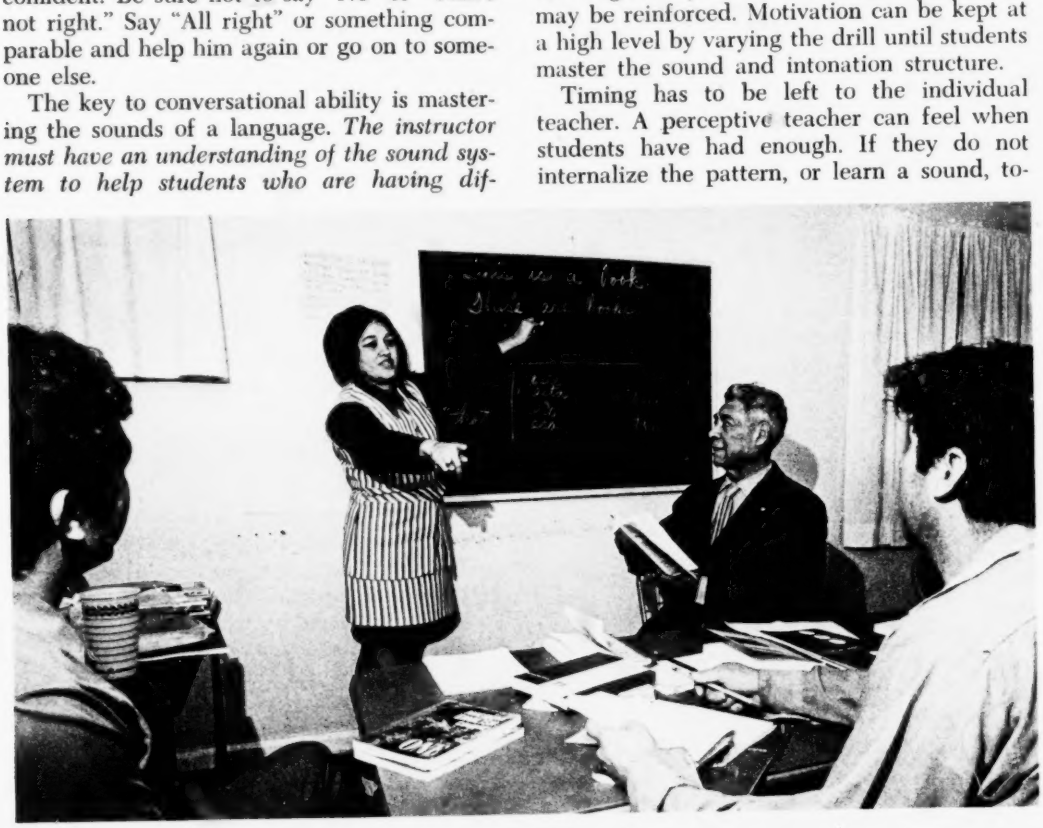
In ESL instruction, hand signals are important for eliciting the response wanted and they save time. As soon as the teacher is satisfied with the students' response to a particular pattern, substitutions and variations should be introduced. Repetition should not be dull as long as the students are learning by repeating.

A teacher who is vivacious and positive in his efforts can ask people to repeat frequently. He should, however, take care not to press someone who is reluctant. If a person shows unwillingness, go on to group or section response until the reluctant student seems more confident. Be sure not to say "No" or "That's not right." Say "All right" or something comparable and help him again or go on to someone else.

The key to conversational ability is mastering the sounds of a language. *The instructor must have an understanding of the sound system to help students who are having difficulty in pronunciation.* And, of course, teach application rather than an analysis of the English sound system. Do not forget the other features of pronunciation—stress, rhythm, intonation and juncture, all of which should be learned in context without analytical explanation.

The sounds to be taught should be taken from the patterns or sentences to be drilled. There is no value to anything that is not reinforced. In other words, a sound drill may seem effective but, *unless the learners practice the sounds within the context of the lesson, drill time is wasted.* Don't drill on sounds too long if they are difficult. Otherwise, errors may be reinforced. Motivation can be kept at a high level by varying the drill until students master the sound and intonation structure.

Timing has to be left to the individual teacher. A perceptive teacher can feel when students have had enough. If they do not internalize the pattern, or learn a sound, to-



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Timing has to be left to the individual teacher. A perceptive teacher can feel when students have had enough. If they do not internalize the pattern, or learn a sound, tomorrow is another day. A more important thing is for adult learners to feel a sense of accomplishment and an interest in returning to class.

Character has never been built on failure. *The only thing that failure teaches is failure.* Be positive. Reward students at every opportunity: "That's good," "That's better." Never harass or embarrass your students. Remember they are sensitive and may have failed or felt rejected from earlier school experiences.

Vocabulary can be built by using familiar structural patterns. Repetition can also be used to teach other forms of verbs.

I can read.	I am reading.
I can sing.	I am singing.
I can talk.	I am talking.

There is little, if any, value in lists of words and meanings. Students internalize only what they need and use. Only then do words become part of their vocabulary. The way to introduce words is in context. When the student shifts his attention from the word itself to communication, learning takes place.

A Variety of Patterns

Drills must provide variety to keep student interest high.

Simple Substitution. The most simple pattern change is substitution in a constant position, with the pattern sentence such as "I like a ____ house," previously introduced.

Teacher:	Student(s):
Big.	I like a *big* house.
White.	I like a *white* house.
Frame.	I like a *frame* house.
Brick.	I like a *brick* house.

Variable Position Substitution. Next in complexity is simple substitution in a variable position. One substitution at a time takes place in different parts of the sentence.

Teacher:	Student(s):
Small.	I like a *small* house.
Boat.	I like a small *boat*.
You.	*You* like a small boat.
White.	You like a *white* boat.
They.	*They* like a white boat.

Addition Drill. Students are drilled in a basic pattern and then given phrases to add. They should respond automatically.

Teacher: I must go to the bank.
Student(s): I must go to the bank.
Teacher: To cash a check.
Student(s): I must go to the bank to cash a check.
Teacher: Before lunch.
Student(s): I must go to the bank to cash a check before lunch.

Transformation Drill. This type of drill requires student recall. It can entail changing a pattern from present to past, from plural to singular, from statement to question, from affirmative to negative, or other transformation. Students must know from hand signals or oral instructions what type of change is to be made.

Teacher: He is a good man.
Student(s): Is he a good man?
Teacher: These tests are hard.
Student(s): These tests are easy.
Teacher: He is busy now.
Student(s): He was busy yesterday.

Completion Drill. For this type of drill, the teacher gives the learner two substitutions to be placed in a sentence such as, "We are always busy."

Teacher: You. Tired.
Student(s): You are always tired.
Teacher: They. Sleepy.
Student(s): They are always sleepy.
Teacher: John and Mary. Happy.
Student(s): John and Mary are always happy.
Teacher: The students. Busy.
Student(s): The students are always busy.
Teacher: We. Working.
Student(s): We are always working.

Backward Build-up. The backward build-up technique is very effective for teaching a long sentence. The teacher says the sentence several times, and then

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Backward Build-up. The backward build-up technique is very effective for teaching a long sentence. The teacher says the sentence several times, and then starts breaking it up from the back into smaller parts, thereby allowing the learners to remember the last part of the sentence and insuring good rhythm and intonation.

Teacher Only: They're going home early today.
Teacher; Then Students: early today.
home early today.
going home early today.
They're going home early today.

Opportunities for Conversation Practice

In an ESL class the learner must be given many opportunities to practice the language he is learning. After formal pattern practice —or after the learner is able to use the structure to his and the teacher's satisfaction—he should use the sentence structures in informal conversation. This means the sentence patterns he has been taught must be relevant to his needs.

Teacher: Are you going to work tomorrow?
Student: Yes; Yes I am; No, I am not; *or* No, I am going to school.

Meaningful conversation is the test, the final lesson. Be sure that each student is confident of the dialogue, that he has internalized it. It is important that they present the dialogue before the class. In one class the students learned:

Good morning, How are you?
Fine, thank you, and you?
Fine, thank you.

The next morning someone greeted a student with the first sentence of the drill. She froze. So it goes without saying that role-playing is necessary. It is the practical application! It is a must!

Mastery is part of ESL and it's important. If the student masters conversation dialogues he is more likely to return the next day and the next day after that. The anecdote above is just one of many examples of why teaching English as a second language is a challenging and important responsibility.

Opportunities for Self-Critiquing

As a part of the TESL Workshop held in Toledo on August 9-11, 1972, each participant had an opportunity to present a lesson before the discerning eye of a video-tape recorder. Several other participants acted as students. To make the lesson more realistic, some participants taught in a language unknown to their role-playing students.

When the tape was played back the participant acting as teacher was encouraged to critique his own teaching skills and to suggest ways he might have been more effective.

When this technique is used locally, Director Robert Avina and other members of the Por-Fin teaching team (see page 31) suggest two back-to-back sessions before the camera. The teacher might first be filmed conducting a five-minute lesson. Immediately following, as the teacher watches the tape, he and the supervisor critique techniques and discuss possible improvements. The teacher is then filmed reteaching the same lesson to a different group of students. A second critiquing session follows.

The objective of the cycle described is to demonstrate to the teacher that his second teaching performance is better than the first. Video taping over a period of time can also help the teacher build a repertoire of alternatives to improve his teaching effectiveness.

Self-Critiquing

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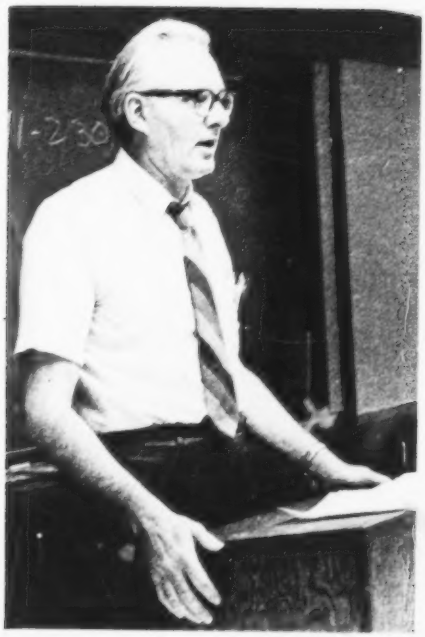

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